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# HISTORY OF THE WORLD



From the Creation of Man  
to the Present Day

BY

DR. GEORGE WEBER

Of Heidelberg

Author of "History of the People of Israel," "History of German Literature,"  
"History of the Reformation," etc., etc.

INCLUDING A COMPREHENSIVE

## HISTORY OF AMERICA

BY

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Presented to the  
George Weber 26 June 1883

## PREFACE.

GEORGE WEBER, the author of the great work herewith presented to the reader, was born in the Bavarian Palatinate in 1808. The only son of a poor widow, his youth was one of labor and privation. But, like the poet Goethe, he inherited from his mother, the gift of story-telling. From her also he learned a courageous self-reliance and a cheerful trust in God. His pastor encouraged him to study, so he prepared himself for the gymnasium at Speyer, whither he started with two dollars in his pocket, and his mother's blessing in his memory. Industry, a powerful constitution, unusual mental power, and moral pith combined to help him work his way through the school and to the University of Erlangen, where he studied for a year and acquired the friendship of Anselm Feuesbach and Franz Schwerdt, the choicest spirits of the faculty. Thence he went to Heidelberg, and became the favorite pupil of the celebrated Hermann. The latter procured him a tutorship in a wealthy English family; this gave him opportunity to support his aged mother, complete his course at the University, pursue his historical studies, and to travel through Switzerland, France, Italy and the Mediterranean islands. After a brief career in his native town, Bergzabern, as principal of the Latin school, he was called to Heidelberg, where he remained for half a century. His new position in the famous University town, though difficult and exacting, did not prevent his literary labors. In 1845 he published a "History of the English Reformation," and in 1852 "Milton's Prose Writings," a work of careful literary history. In 1847 appeared "His Manual of Universal History" which has gone through twenty editions and appeared in every language of civilized Europe. In 1880 his "Universal History" was published in fifteen volumes and received with unusual favor. This latter was the matured expression of deep and careful investigations into every branch of human history. Weber died in 1889 beloved and honored, by his prince and his fellow-citizens, by his University and his pupils, by a great circle of friends at home and abroad.

The present work is distinguished for its breadth, its accuracy, its fulness, its conciseness, the skill with which its topics are arranged, the quiet ease and dignity of the narrative, the deft introduction of anecdote and maxim, and the warmth of noble feeling with which great men and great events are handled. It is conservative in tone, yet abounds in proofs of critical learning; the author is not an iconoclast, much less a destroyer of well-grounded traditions; nevertheless the truth is the object of his search and of his reverence. He sketches a character by the selection of essential facts in a man's career, by the reproduction of characteristic phrases, and tell-tale phases of his speech and conduct. So too with an epoch. The

trivial and unfruitful details are discarded, so as to make room for the events that have decided crises, and determined the fate of nations and the destiny of the world. And all this portraiture of men and narration of events is wrought into an effective unity, in which the author's favorite aphorism "*Die Welt-Geschichte ist das Welt-gerecht*" receives constant and startling illustration. "The course of human history is God's judgment upon the deeds of men." So he thought and so he taught.

But every true man is a patriot; and to the patriot his native land stands first. Weber was a German. Accordingly his own country, especially in the recent years of triumph and consolidation under the leadership of Prussia, somewhat obscured for him his judgment of contemporary events. This was especially true in the case of the United States. It was deemed best therefore, while presenting a free but accurate translation of the latest German edition of the Universal History, to write an entirely new history of the American Republic, and upon an entirely new plan. Instead of beginning with the English colonies, the settlements of other Europeans are first described; so that the English may appear in their character as the makers of homes, and the conquerors of a continent. Others preceded them and surpassed them in discovery; but they were chosen to shape the political institutions, the moral and the religious ideas and habits of the future North American Union. In the following sections, the aim has been to present, as vividly as possible, the story of the fight for independence, of the formation of the "more perfect union," of the consolidation of the states, and of the struggles that issued in the civil war. The author has refrained from comment, but he has told the truth; simply as he could, fully as his space would allow. Facts are the stuff of history; the rhetoric that dazzles the reader, blinds his judgment and keeps alive his prejudice. The art of the genuine historian lies not in the skill with which he presents and supports his view of the meaning of events, but in the genius with which he separates opinion from realities and compels occurrences to justify or to condemn themselves.

C. J. L.

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# FLAGS OF



FLAGS  
 OF THE  
 COMMERCIAL CODE  
 OF  
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CODE AND  
 ANSWERING  
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# THE NATIONS





BOOK 1.





GREEK PRIESTESS AND LADIES. (pp. 22.)



SCULPTURE—ARCHITECTURE—PAINTING.

## INTRODUCTION.

### 1.—PRIMEVAL MAN.

#### § 1.



**A**FTER God had in the beginning created heaven and earth, (so runs the book of Genesis) had adorned the heavens with sun, moon, and stars, clothed the earth with vegetation and filled it with living creatures, he created man in his own image and appointed him, by endowing him with intelligence and speech, to be the Lord of the whole earth.

Pure and strong in body and in soul, continues Holy writ, the first pair came from the creator's hand: and they lived in Paradise, their original home, a life of innocent happiness, until tempted by the serpent, they tasted of the forbidden tree of knowledge, and for their disobedience of the divine command lost their unconscious purity and their state of blessedness.

Adam and Eve with all their posterity were henceforth doomed to live a life of toil and hardship, "to eat their bread in the sweat of their face." The vehement impulses of a wild and untamed nature plunged the young races deeper and deeper into sin and error, until at last, a great flood (the deluge) swept the human family from the earth, sparing none but Noah and his family, who saved themselves and many animals besides, in an ark.

Noah's posterity, biblical tradition informs us further, increased so rapidly that the later races, derived from his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japhet were compelled to seek for homes in the neighboring lands. There they began to build the tower of Babel, the top of which was to reach the sky and be for them an everlasting sign.

This presumptuous enterprise God brought to nothing by confounding their speech and thus separating them from each other. They migrated to the four quarters of the earth, peopled the three continents, Asia, Africa, and Europe, grouping



themselves, according to their different languages, into tribes and nations. To this geographical distribution of the human family may be ascribed the corporeal differences that appeared in the course of time. Especially noticeable are differences in the color of the skin and the form of the head: hence the division into three great trunk races, the white (Caucasian), the yellow (Mongolian), the black (Ethiopian), and two branch races, the dark brown (Malay), and the copper-colored (American). The latter, however, may be regarded as sub-divisions of one and the same race, seeing that the Unity of humanity (as a distinct species) is maintained by science also.

## 2.—PRIMEVAL MODES OF LIFE.

§ 2. As the habitations of men differed, so too their modes of life and their occupations. The inhabitants of steppes and deserts, where fertile spots for pasture were to be found only here and there, devoted themselves to pastoral life and moved as Nomads with their tents and herds from place to place, changing their abode with the seasons. These Nomads were the first to tame and to train animals, to discover the value of their wool and hides as clothing, and of their milk and flesh as food. They employed them too in various forms of labor.



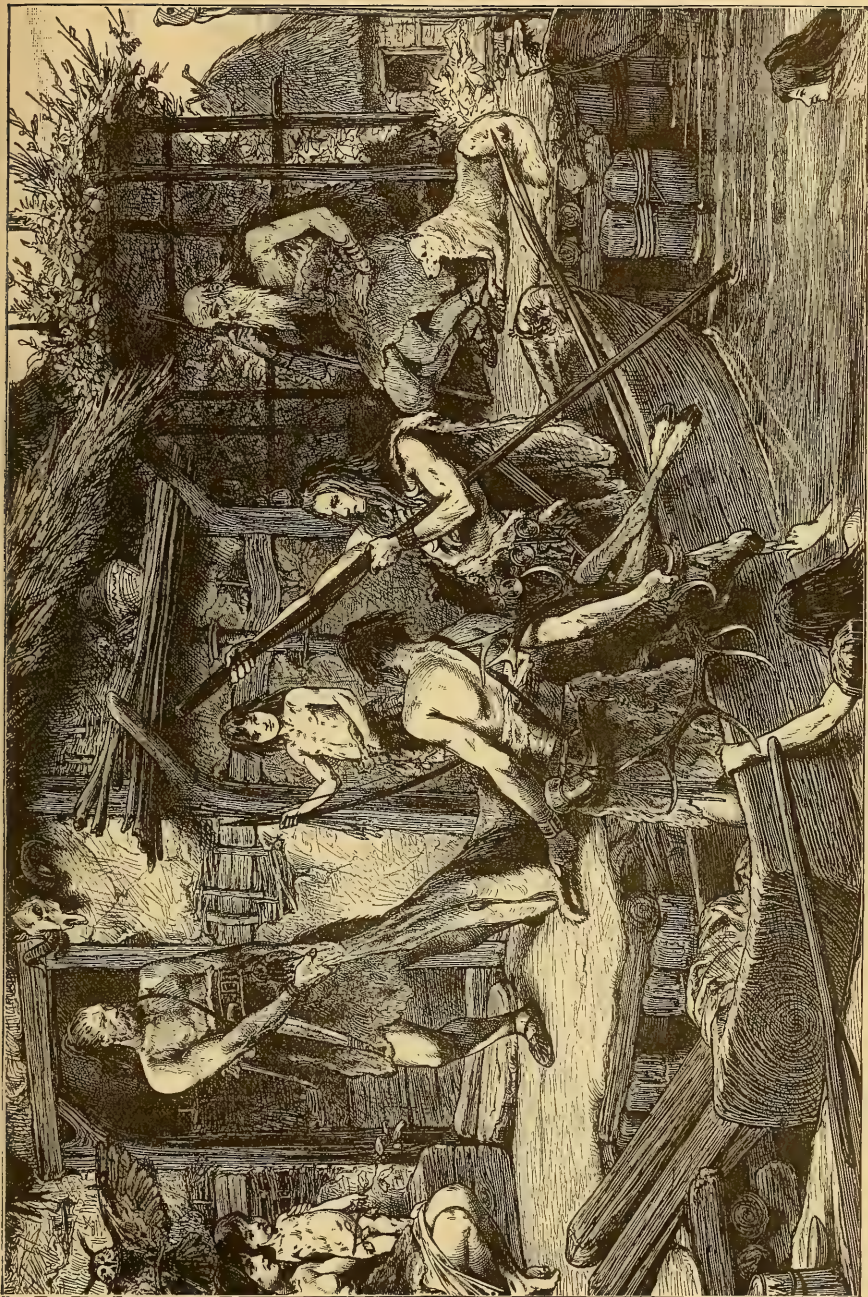
MEN DURING THE STONE AGE.



MEN DURING THE BRONZE AGE.

The inhabitants of the plains learned the arts of agriculture and of peace. But the rough and hardy mountaineer gave himself up to hunting, or urged by violent and powerful impulses, found delight in strife and war.

The former united to his tilling of the soil the life of the herdsman and in the course of time distinguished the private acre from the tribal land and secured to each one his property, his field, his hut and his herd by laws and legal rights. Hence the pursuit of agriculture has been designated as the great gateway to society. The settlers along the sea-shore and the river banks discovered soon the advantages of their situation. They carried on navigation and commerce, acquired property and riches, and built for themselves beautiful dwelling houses and cities. Meanwhile the inhabitants of the more inhospitable coasts eked out by fishing a joyless existence. Commerce, and the intercourse of races, resulting from it, was a powerful stimulus to the progress of mankind. The inhabitants of fruitful plains and richly watered valleys carried on an inland trade; the inhabitants of the



THE LAKE DWELLERS.—A PREHISTORIC RACE. (*Ideal Reconstruction by John Gehrts.*)



sea-coast a trade by ships. To the former belonged the caravan trade of Asia and Africa.

In the beginning this commerce was all barter (ware for ware); but man soon began to prize especially the noble metals, to mint them into coins and to use them as a more convenient medium of exchange.

The inhabitants of cities invented industries of many sorts, and cultivated arts and sciences thus enriching and beautifying their lives and perfecting the human mind.

### 3.—POLITICAL ORGANIZATION—THE CASTE SYSTEM.

§ 3. In the course of time, peoples divided into civilized and uncivilized according as disposition and intercourse favored the development of intellectual power or natural obtuseness, and isolation from their fellow men hindered mental progress. The uncivilized peoples are either wild hordes, under the control of one chief who possesses absolute power of life and death, or wandering Nomadic races under the guidance of a chieftain, who as father of the family, exercises the rights of a prince, judge and high priest. Neither these Nomadic tribes with their patriarchal institutions, nor the wild races that wander in Africa's unknown sand-deserts, in Asia's mountains and steppes and in the primeval forests of America have a place in history. This is concerned only with civilized races, who have united together to found an organized commonwealth and who by morality, by law, and by mutual concessions have reached a peaceful communal life and intercourse.

A state organization may be a monarchy, or a republic. Monarchy is where one ruler stands at the head of the government. This single ruler is called, according to the extent of his territory, emperor or king, duke or prince. And his authority passes as a rule according to the law of primogeniture to his nearest heir.

A republic or free state is one where the authority resides in an elected magistracy consisting of several members. When these magistrates are chosen from a circle limited by birth or wealth, the republic is aristocratic. But when the people, as a whole, make the laws and choose the responsible leaders of the government it is democratic.—In many states of antiquity the freedom of the individual was limited by the institution of caste. By this is meant a strict separation of men according to birth, position, and occupation which passes down from father to son and which permits no admixture, and no passage from the one class into the other. The two first castes embraced the priests who alone possessed the knowledge of religious doctrines and usages, of civil laws and customs, and the warriors whose duty was to bear arms and to protect the land. These two divisions shared with the king the right to rule and enjoyed many privileges. The peasants, merchants and artisans formed the third caste and this branched out again into numerous sub-divisions. These caste regulations were often the consequence of violent conquests; hence in most of the caste states there existed a despised class doomed to the meanest occupations, leading a wretched life, and treated by the ruling classes with the utmost contempt.

India has maintained her system of caste most rigidly and for the longest time, but Egypt also had caste like separations based upon condition and occupation.

### 4.—RELIGIOUS LIFE.

§ 4. The manner of life and the political society of antiquity were not more manifold

than the religions and the forms of worship. The idea of a personal God, creator, and sustainer of the universe was reached in antiquity only by one small people, the Israelites, who worshiped no other God than the God of their race, Jehovah, i. e. The Eternal One. All other peoples worshiped many gods, adoring either the sun and the celestial bodies or worshiping as divine beings the forces and the elements at work in nature. All polytheistic religions, however much they differ, are included under the term heathenism. The Supreme Being was not thought of as spirit, and worshiped in spirit and in truth, but conceived of by the ancients either in human shape, or as particular divinities in which were manifested his different powers and attributes.

VULCAN.  
PAN.NEPTUNE.  
CERES

ÆOLUS. JUPITER.

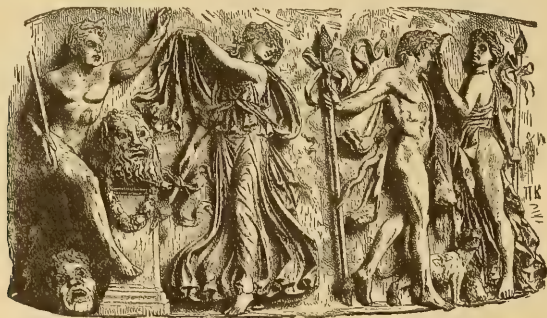
SERAPIS.  
OSIRIS AND ISIS.THANATOS.  
BACCHUS

MYTHOLOGICAL CHARACTERS.

The particular divinities they represented sometimes by gods made of metal, of stone, of wood, of clay. To these were erected temples and altars; to these were offered sacrifices partly to appease their wrath, partly to obtain their favor, partly to thank them for their beneficent providence. The sacrifices were of many kinds, according to the culture of the people. The Greeks who conceived of their Gods as a nobler kind of human beings instituted for them cheerful festivals. At these they consumed, in friendly society, the offered fruits and the sacrificed animals from the small gift of the firstling of the flock, to the great sacrifice of a hundred oxen called the Hecatomb.



The barbarous or semi-barbarous peoples stained their altars with human sacrifices hoping to move the heavenly powers by the greatest and most valuable of gifts, to induce them to be gracious to beseeching mortals or to be reconciled if they were angry. The Phœnician and Syrian tribes laid the dearest that they possessed, even their own children as expiatory offerings in the arms of a red-hot idol called "Moloch"—To be sure the idol was intended to be the visible sign of an invisible thought or invisible power, but among the people it lost its higher meaning and they gave their adoration to the lifeless image. Only priests and sages knew this deeper sense, but they did not share it with the people. On the contrary, they veiled it in mysteries and cherished it as the private property of their order. For this purpose they invented many legends, stories, and fables of the gods whom they served, clothed them in poetic forms and thereby founded mythology or the doctrine of the gods. In this the deeds and fates of different divinities and their relations to mankind are represented, not in clear intelligible speech but veiled in enigmatical suggestions, allegorical narratives, and pictorial utterance. A people possessed of creative imagination and inclined to the divine developed naturally a rich mythology. In these sacred myths is reflected the inner life of the youthful races. They have become therefore a copious source of art and poetry. And although these legends of the gods made the people to abound in superstition, yet their solemn worship with its mysterious ceremonies and its symbolism in the consecrated spaces of the temple, held the people in awe and in holy dread of the gods. To make their faith yet firmer, the greater temples and more sacred places were provided with an oracle which kept alive the feeling of the nearness of the gods, and a belief in their interference in the affairs of men. To these the people came in critical moments to obtain knowledge of the future and helpful advice, which was imparted to them in obscure and ambiguous utterance. Thus the human mind, in its search for divine truth, was continually led astray and held in bondage now by blinding ceremonials, now by the worship of a lifeless law; thus the Visible and the Sensual absorbed without satisfying, the yearning of the human heart for the supernatural powers.



BACCHANALIAN FESTIVAL. *From an Attic Sarcophagus.*



## A. EASTERN RACES.

§ 5.

### 1. ORIENTAL LIFE.



SIA called from its situation the Orient (Land of the Rising Sun) is the cradle of the human family. The garden of Eden is to be sought among the blooming landscapes that extend along the sheltered slopes of the Himalaya Mountains, "those mighty snow palaces," the pinnacles of which are hidden in the clouds.

In the East arose first those great States and cities from which other lands have taken a part of their civil institutions, of their religious systems and of their culture. In the East, where the camel lives, "the Ship of the Desert," originated that colossal inland commerce, the caravan trade, which has exercised so marked an influence upon the course of

human progress. The difficulties and dangers of long journeys through regions but little known, and much frequented by robber tribes, compelled the oriental merchants to organize themselves into armed bodies and to escort their heavily laden camels and beasts of burden from place to place. These caravans gave occasion for the building of markets and cities, of ware-houses and inns; they brought the dwellers in distant parts into communication with each other, so that with the products of the soil, the culture, the religious usages and the political institutions of different countries were also exchanged.

In the East originated likewise all the forms of religion; the belief in one God developed among the Jews, renewed and purified in Christianity and finally so potent in Mohammedanism, and also the heathen religions in all their manifold variety, with their powerful priesthoods, their sacrificial service and their ceremonial life. For the relation of man to the heavenly powers has been for the Oriental a subject of eager and profound study, and has led him to results beyond which no other nation has ever gone.

In the East, however, political life was less manifold than religious, revealing far less variety of constitutions and of governmental forms.

The Nomads had chieftains who exercised a patriarchal authority; the Caste-States gave extraordinary privileges and powers to the priest and warrior classes. Both combined to create despotism, the absolute sovereignty of the prince, which endowed the ruler with the patriarchal power of the Nomad chief and the religious sanctity of the Caste-kings. Thus the royal authority in the east reached gradually such a height, that the king was worshiped as a god. To the despot his subjects appeared as slaves, without personal rights or property. The king disposed as he pleased of the goods and lives of his subjects. He gave and took, at his own will, and could be approached only upon bended knees. Like the immortal gods he lived in luxury and pleasure, surrounded by servants who performed his commands and satisfied his desires. All the wealth and splendor of the earth was lavished upon him. These forms of government, in which laws and human rights do not exist are without vitality and enduring elements of progress; hence all the eastern states became the prey of foreign conquerors, their early culture being thereby lost or arrested.

The nature of the Oriental is inclined rather to contemplative quiet and to enjoy-



GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

ment than to activity. Consequently the eastern peoples never attained to freedom or to self government; on the contrary, they submitted passively to native tyrants or sighed under the yoke of foreign conquerors. By means of their intellectual



powers they reached quickly a certain degree of culture and politico-military civilization, only to abandon themselves quickly to idle enjoyment, until they sank gradually into sloth and weakness. This weakness was furthered by the oriental custom of polygamy which undermined the family, the source of all domestic morality, strength and virtue.

The art of the Orient is wonderful in the colossal dimensions of the buildings and the irresistible patience and perseverance displayed in their completion; but these lack the harmony and symmetry and beautiful utility to be found in the works of a free people. The creations of their art and their industry show a skilled handicraft, attained and maintained by the compulsion of caste and guild, rather than creative genius and spontaneous activity. Servitude hung like a leaden weight upon every form of oriental life.

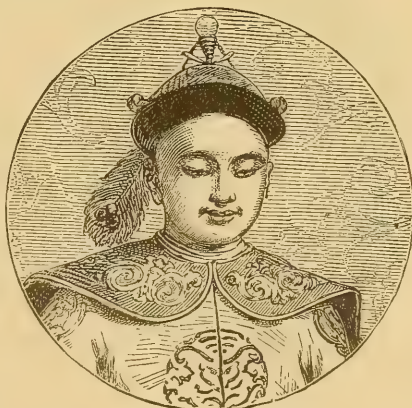
## 2. THE CHINESE.

§ 6. The Chinese have no part in the life of history, yet they meet us at its threshold. The development of the human race has followed the daily course of the Sun. In all probability therefore the peoples of the extreme East were the first to emerge from the condition of semi-barbarous tribes.

The great empire of China, "The celestial middle Kingdom," has been inhabited for thousands of years by a race of Mongolian origin, which possesses unchanged the culture and the institutions of hoary antiquity. In China everything is regulated by ancient laws and forms; there freedom is unknown. This lack of a progressive development is due partly to the persistent character of the people which clings to the accustomed and the inherited; partly to the isolation of the kingdom from other nations, because of mountains, seas, and the great Chinese wall, nearly 1500 miles in length; partly to the exclusion of foreigners from the realm and partly to its political institutions.

For the Emperor, "The Son of the Sky," the sacred Lord, the divinely revered sovereign, is possessed of unlimited authority, so that he and his mandarins, a numerous body of privileged scholars and officials, hold the enslaved, despised, and oppressed people firmly to the ancient customs and prevent all innovation. The Chinese thus deprived of the experiences of foreign nations have fallen behind them in general culture, although they were acquainted ages ago with the compass, gun powder, the art of printing, and although they have displayed at all times a wonderful industry and laboriousness. Even their industrial art cannot compare with that of the western nations in spite of their

early invention of writing-materials, their early manufacture of porcelain, their skill in weaving silks, and in the carving of wood and ivory. Agriculture, which stands



CHINESE MANDARIN.



under the immediate protection of the Emperor (who tills and ploughs himself a particular piece of land) is the oldest and most honored occupation; it constitutes the organizing and ennobling element in the life of the Chinese State and people. Next to the corn and rice-fields, tea and silk-culture are the pride of the land and the source of great wealth. Silk culture is under the immediate care of the empress. Chinese education aims not at the development of intellectual powers but at the learning of what the forefathers knew and practised, and of what serves to produce civic virtue, obedience to the laws, reverence for magistrates and parents.

The education, government and habits of the Chinese render them cowardly and inactive and rob them of all sense of honor and of strength. Yet they have the utmost conceit of their superiority, regarding all other nations with arrogant contempt. Their written language, consisting not of letters but of symbols or pictures is so difficult and clumsy that many years are required to learn to read it merely. As lawgiver and founder of their religion, of their civil and social in-



CHINESE TEACHER.



IMAGE OF CONFUCIUS.

stitutions the Chinese revere an ancient sage Confucius, (Kong-fu-tse) who collected the early teachings, laws, histories and traditions of the people, arranged them into *500 B. C.* a system and thus gave to ancient custom fixedness and strength.

### 3. THE HINDUS.

§ 7. Southwards from the snow covered heights of the Himalayas stretches a fruitful, favored land with a temperate climate; a land rich in precious products of every kind, and traversed by the Indus, the Ganges and other mighty rivers. Here the Indians or the Hindus have dwelt from immemorial time, and their ancient greatness is attested by many buildings yet extant, ruins of cities and of temples, by wonderful monuments in Scripture and in stone, and by countless historical reminiscences. The Hindus were descendants of the Aryans, who migrated from the highlands of Thibet and subdued the less powerful aborigines of the southern country. As long as they dwelt in the land of the five rivers, close to the holy river Sarasvati, the Aryans, divided into many branches, led a pastoral life under the guidance of their chiefs and kings, worshipping the powers of nature with songs and sacrifices. But as they wandered eastwards toward the Ganges and the

Yamouna, they exchanged their primitive customs for the institutions of caste, to which they gave the severest form. The first and most honored caste was the Brahmans; these were priests richly endowed with goods, honors and privileges. They were counted holy and inviolable; could be punished in body for no crime; were free from taxation, constituted the royal council and held most of the offices. Next to the Brahmans stood the warriors (Kschatrija) who for pay and certain advantages assumed the protection and defence of the land. The peaceful character of the people and the isolation of this land made enemies uncommon and wars unfrequent. Consequently the warrior class degenerated and the priests acquired easily the first rank. The kings, however, belonged to the warrior caste. Tillers of the soil, merchants and artisans constituted the third caste; these despised Vaisja were heavily oppressed by taxes and forced levies and so plundered by officials that in spite of the great fertility of the soil they lived in poverty and wretchedness. The slave class, Sudra, were excluded from all honors and rights, and could not even have a share in the religion and the sacred books of the Aryan Hindus, which latter called themselves the twice-born. The most despised class in India was the Pariah class, or Tschandala,



LOW CASTE HINDUS.

from whom it is said our Gipsies are descended. These are the dark-skinned posterity of the savage aborigines, who are looked upon by the other Hindus as the offscouring of humanity, and treated by them with profound contempt. They may not dwell in cities, towns, or villages, or even in their vicinity; whatever they touch, becomes unclean, and whoever sees one of them, is defiled by the sight. Mixing of caste by marriage is strictly forbidden; any one guilty thereof is cast out as unclean and abandoned to contumely. This rigid division into castes, which was upheld by the Brahmans as a divine arrangement of society, hindered all further progress and arrested the early culture of the race.

#### § 8. RELIGION, LITERATURE, ART.

The Hindus believed in a divine first being, from whom the visible and invisible world have proceeded, and to which they will, after long periods of time, return. The centre of their religion was the doctrine of the transmigration of souls and of regeneration. According to this doctrine the human soul has been chained to an earthly body as a penalty; the goal of human effort must be reunion with the divine soul of the universe. Life on earth is a term of punishment and probation, to be shortened only by holy conduct, by prayer and sacrifice, by penances and purifications. If man

neglects these holy duties and, falling away from God, sinks deeper into evil, his soul enters after death into the body of a baser creature, to begin anew its weary pilgrimage.



AN OLD FAKIR OF BENARES.

But the soul of the sage, the hero, the penitent ascends through the shining stars toward the eternal spirit whence it came and into which it will be finally absorbed. Man, say the Brahmans, reaches the end of his creation by unbroken contemplation of the divine and separation from the earthly. Hence they exalted contemplation and reflection above an active life, withdrew themselves from the lower classes, read and pondered the holy scriptures of the Veda, inflicted upon themselves penances and tortures, gave alms, performed ablutions, did every sort of ceremonial duty, that they might get nearer to the deity.

The Brahman may not kill an animal or injure one, or eat of its flesh, unless it be a sacrifice; for the soul of a man may dwell in the body of a beast. In the oldest times, when the Hindus still lived in the land of the five rivers, they worshiped the powers that prevailed in nature, *Indra* the lord of the sky who governs sunshine and rain with the clouds and the winds, *Varuna* the God of the air and many other deities. Alongside these natural deities they worshiped quite early a mysterious divine force, called *Brahma*, which had power over these nature-gods. After the Hindus gave themselves up to the contemplative life of the Ganges Valley, this idea of *Brahma* took the first place in the Hindu religion, as the soul of the world,

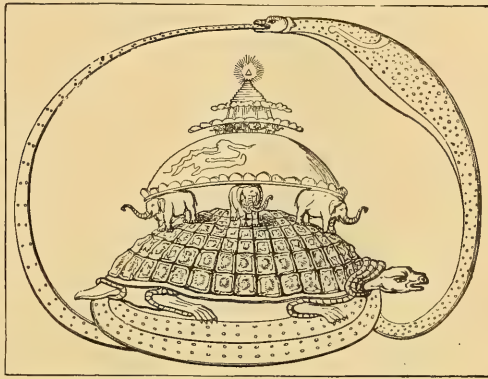
the fountain of all being, *Indra* and other nature-gods dropping to the rank of world guardians merely.

About the middle of the sixth century before Christ the doctrine of Prince Buddha "The Awakened" spread through the land. Buddha preached the equality of all human beings, eternal rest in death without a second birth, and love and mercy toward all men as the chief virtue.

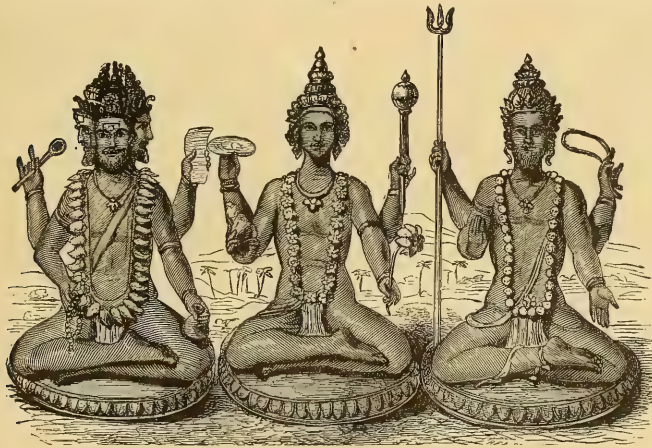
Numberless cloisters were built in many places above the relics of the great teacher to which flocked disciples eager to escape the world. To the weary and heavy laden he had promised a release from the suffering of this present time through the practice of virtue and fraternal love, and the redemption of their souls in "Nirvana,"



and they heard it gladly. The Hindus possessed creative imagination and great mental powers. This is displayed especially in their literature. Many of their writings are thousands of years old; all of them are in the sacred Sanscrit language and irreparably connected with religion and the doctrine of the Gods. The four books of Veda are the source of the religion of the Brahmins, and are held in the highest reverence. They contain partly hymns and prayers, partly rules for sacrifice, partly doctrines and precepts; they are studied and explained by the Brahmins. Next to the Vedas stands "The Laws of Menu" a collection of very ancient maxims, traditions, and binding customs. Besides these the Hindus possess a multitude of poetic writings, distinguished for their imagery, their deep feeling and religious awe. Many of these works were brought to Europe by the English conquerors of India and then translated



HINDU REPRESENTATION OF THE UNIVERSE.



BRAHMA, VISHNU AND SIVA.

by scholars into European tongues. The most famous are two great epic poems, the oldest portions of which belong probably to the tenth century before Christ. One of these is the *Mahabharata*, in which the conflicts of two races of heroes, Kuru and Pandu are celebrated, and *Ramajana* which sings of the triumphal march of the divine



hero Rama to South India and Ceylon. A third production is *Sakontala*, a charming drama of a later period. Indian art is also inseparably connected with the Hindu religion.



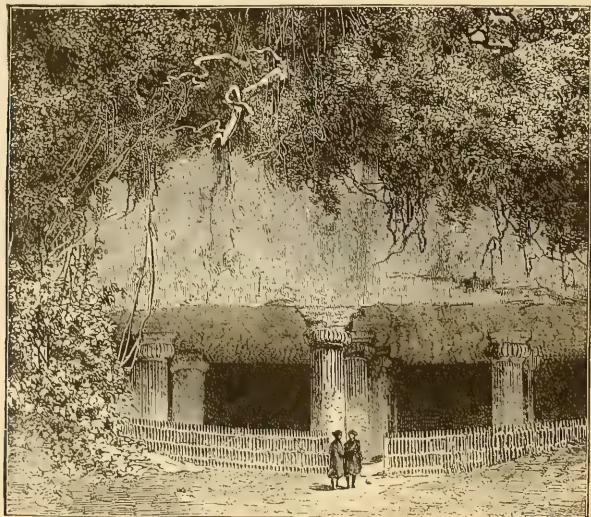
BUDDHA.

Particularly remarkable are the rock-hewn temples and grottos, the most famous of which are at Ellora in the middle of India, at Salsette, and the Island Elephanta near the city of Bombay. Here are grottos, temples, dwellings, passages and galleries with statues and inscriptions, hewn for miles out of and through the rocks.

Thousands of hands must have worked patiently and persistently for ages to complete this wealth of artistic and difficult achievement.

These products of art together with the products of her looms, and her pearls, diamonds, ivory, spices, made India even in ancient times the goal and centre of the caravan trade and sea traffic; they made

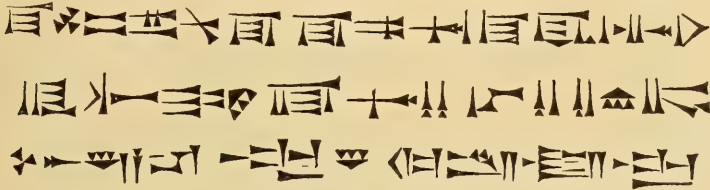
India also the desire of the conqueror. To the latter she fell an easy prey, because of the divisions of caste, the poverty of her political development, and the lack of energy and of independence among her people.



ENTRANCE TO CAVES OF ELEPHANTA.

## 4.—BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS.

§ 9. In the fruitful regions watered by the Euphrates and Tigris, and in the grassy terraces of Mesopotamia (Mid-river-land), there dwelt in ancient times races of unknown origin, which are now designated by the name Sumerian or Accadian. They were the fathers of astronomy, and the inventors of cuneiform writing. These



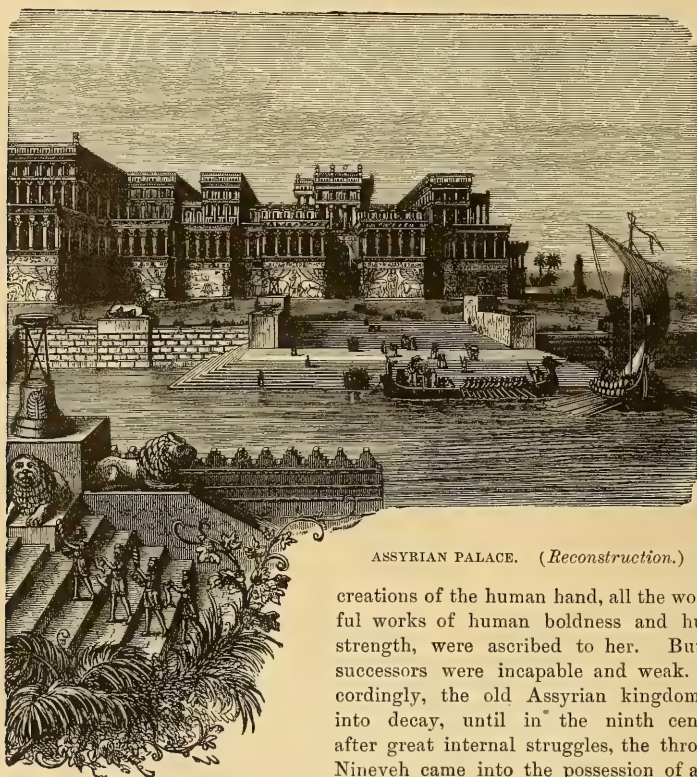
CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTION.

aborigines were subjugated by the Chaldæans, a primitive people, that pushed forward from the eastern highland of Elam into the lower valley of the Euphrates, adopted the culture of the Sumerians, and dwelt for centuries in the land, which was consequently called Chaldæa. During the dynasty of the Cassi, Babylon, the ancient temple-city was made the capital of the kingdom. Of Nimrod, who is mentioned in the Bible as "a mighty hunter before the Lord," and designated as the founder and ruler of Babylon, there is no mention in the inscriptions. But the name of Sargon I., is surrounded with legendary splendor. He is celebrated as the conqueror who pressed forward to the east and to the west, and as the ruler who made his Semitic warriors acquainted with the culture of the Sumerians. Among the small Semitic kingdoms that existed near Babylon, between the Euphrates and the Tigris, Assyria, which lay toward the north, acquired, gradually, a decided superiority. It was in all probability, a colony of old Babylonia, to judge from the likeness of the two peoples, in their writing and in their religion. The reputed founder, Assur, is a mythical being suggested by the name of the land. The Assyrians became the dominant people soon after they made the favorably situated city of Nineveh the capital of their kingdom. The



ASSYRIAN WARRIORS AND ARCHER.

names Ninus and Semiramis, so prominent in oriental legends, are only allegorical, mythological abstractions. Semiramis, who carried on the government after the murder of her husband, Ninus, is pictured in the mythical tradition as a heroic woman of great beauty and luxurious habits; who marched victoriously as far as India, who adorned Babylon with gardens, and her kingdom with splendid highways, bridges, canals and public buildings. Her name became so celebrated in the East that all great



ASSYRIAN PALACE. (*Reconstruction.*)

creations of the human hand, all the wonderful works of human boldness and human strength, were ascribed to her. But her successors were incapable and weak. Accordingly, the old Assyrian kingdom fell into decay, until in the ninth century, after great internal struggles, the throne of Nineveh came into the possession of a new royal line. War-like kings now turned their arms to the South and to the West, subjugated Babylonia, and conquered the Syrian land to the Mediterranean Sea. At the same time, they adorned the walls of their palaces with the pictures and descriptions of their deeds, the deciphering of which, by the scholars of our time, has brought new light into Assyrian history. All Western Asia, from Iran and Armenia to Syria and Palestine, bowed beneath their scepter. Tiglath Pileser II. (mentioned in the *Tiglath Pileser II.*, Book of Kings as Phul) compelled the princes of Damascus, of Hamath and of Samaria, to pay him tribute. Still more powerful was Salmanassar IV., the skillful general Sargon II, who succeeded to the throne after the short reign of Salmanassar IV. He conquered Samaria and carried the Israelites into captivity; he besieged the commercial city of Tyre, overcame the Philistines of Gaza and Ashdod, and threatened Lower Egypt. The Medes and the rebellious Babylonians trembled at his sharp-edged sword. When Sargon was murdered, his son, Sennacherib, ascended the throne. He, though as energetic and as warlike as his father, failed of success; his campaign against Judah





TIGLATH-PILESER STORMING A TOWN. (*From Palace at Nineveh.*)

**Sennacherib**, and Egypt was unfortunate, and only with difficulty did he suppress the uprisings in Babylonia and Media. But the buildings with which he adorned Nineveh made him very famous. Unhappy in his government, he was also unfortunate in death. "As he was worshiping in the house of Nisroch, his god," says the Book of Kings, "Adrammelech and Sharezer, his sons, smote him with the sword." (*II Kings, xix: 37.*) His son, Assurhadon, revenged his death, and compelled the

**Assurhadon**, unnatural children to fly from the land: he then continued the con-

**B. C. 681-668.** quests in Western Asia; overcame the Egyptian king Tarako, and proclaimed himself king of Egypt and Ethiopia. Assyrian Satraps, or tributary kings, governed the Nile country and founded the dominion of the so-called Dodekarchy. Assurhadon's

**Assurbanipal**, son, Assurbanipal, was a most

**B. C. 668-625.** powerful ruler; he subdued the rebellious Egyptians and marched to Thebes; he defeated the unfaithful Babylonians in a fearful battle, and hurled the rebels into a consuming fire. In a nine years' war



ASSYRIAN CLAY COFFINS.





he subjugated the strong mountain tribes of Susanna, burnt down their cities, and carried off their treasures and the idols. But the hatred of the conquered peoples against this iron tyranny led to a war of desperation, and twenty years after the death of Assurbanipal, the Assyrian Empire perished. Of the catastrophe we have no certain information. The Greek writers say that Cyaxares, king of the Medes, and Nabopolassar, king of the Chaldeans, formed an alliance and marched at the head of the great multitude of outraged people against the Assyrians. Assurhaddon II. (*Assurhaddon II.*, erroneously called *Sardanapalus*) was king when this flood broke (*Sardanapalus*) over the throne. Nineveh, the capital, was besieged, but defended by *B. C. 625-605.* Sardanapalus with great courage—in spite of his sensuality and his

love of luxury. The enemy were repeatedly driven back, but their way was opened by an inundation that carried away part of the city wall. The king, despairing of his safety, commanded the castle to be set on fire, and he was consumed along with his wives and his treasures. Nineveh was then razed to the ground, and the Assyrian kingdom divided among the victors. "Nineveh is fallen," cried the Prophets of Israel exultingly, "ashes on the threshold, her cedar walls torn away, now is she become a desert, a place for the wild beasts. He



ASSYRIAN CHARIOT OF STATE.

that passes by maketh a mock of the great city!" The ruins of splendid buildings and the works of art, with carved figures and inscriptions, which have been brought to light by recent excavations, bear witness of the former splendor and beauty of the ancient city; of the power and the oriental despotism of her ruler; of the culture and artistic sense of her inhabitants.

"Behold, the Assyrian was a cedar in Lebanon with fair branches, and with a shadowing shroud, and of a high stature; and his top was among the thick boughs. The waters made him great, the deep set him up on high with her rivers running round about his plants, and sent out her little rivers into all the trees of the field. Not any tree in the garden of God was like unto him in his beauty." (Ezekiel, xxxi. 3, 4, 8.)

§ 10. The Chaldeans or Babylonians were now predominant, especially under

**Nebuchadnezzar**, the warlike and mighty Nebuchadnezzar, who conquered the island city of Tyre, compelled Phœnicia and Syria to pay tribute, and subjugated the kingdom of Judah. He adorned Babylon with castles, gates, temples, parks, and other works of art. A high and broad wall surrounded the whole city, the length of which is said to have been more than fifty miles. The two royal palaces on the banks of the Euphrates: the high, square tower of Baal the sun-god, which was richly adorned with statues and ornaments of gold, and was used by those that watched the stars; the terraced park abounding in trees, called by the people the hanging gardens of Semiramis, were astonishing creations. These hanging gardens were the present of Nebuchadnezzar to his wife. She had been brought up in the wooded mountain land of Medea, and he desired to give her pleasure, by placing near his new palace a picture of her forest home. In their building, the Babylonians used burnt tile. Their bridges, canals, dikes, dams, "those countless waterbrooks of Babylon" were erected, in order to carry the waters of the Euphrates to the parched ground. The worship of the sun and of the stars led the Babylonian priests to astronomical observations: they reckoned the course of the sun and divided the year; they determined the paths of the planets, and dedicated to them the seven days of the week; but as they blended astrology with their astronomy they went astray, and wandered around the world in later centuries as Magi and soothsayers, as interpreters of dreams and wizards. The Chaldeans were also the first to use weights and measures, and among them originated



NEBUCHADNEZZAR.  
(From Black Babylonian Cameo in  
Berlin Mus.)



ASSYRIAN NOBLES AND COURTIER.

geometry and medicine. The fertility of the soil and their active commerce made them rich, and as a consequence fond of splendor and of luxury. Hence they were renowned for their fine weaving and their costly carpets, as well as for their immorality, luxury and dissipation. They anointed their bodies with costly ointments, wore white mantles and long hair, and were singularly unchaste in their religious service. Three great mountains of ruins, which start up out of the surrounding desert, a disordered pile of massive stones, broken urns and pottery of every sort, mutilated statues and inscriptions, mark the site where the world famous Babylon, "The pride of the Chaldeans," used to stand. The once glorious garden has become a desert, where the step of the wanderer starts the wild beast. The soil once tilled so carefully, the fertility of which excited the wonder of the ancient world, is now a barren plain. The canals are dried up, the dams broken down, the works of irrigation gone to ruin. And the hanging gardens of Nebuchadnezzar, where Alexander the Great sought to allay the glow of fever, and of the sun, is now a heap of ruins, called by the inhabitants Elkafr, which means Castle-hill.



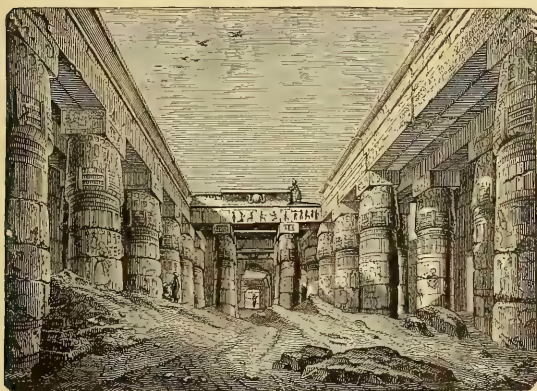
## 5. THE EGYPTIANS.

§ 11. The Greeks did right to call Egypt "A gift of the Nile," seeing that the regular annual inundation, which is caused by the periodical rain-fall on the equatorial high-lands, gave to the land an exceeding fertility. For the spring flood was guided and regulated by a great variety of works of irrigation, such as canals, dams, and cisterns. From the earliest period the Egyptian valley was divided into Upper and Lower Egypt. Upper Egypt was the South-land, where the colossal and note-worthy ruins of Thebes still excite the admiration of travelers. This extensive world of statues and columns, the ruins of which are scattered along both shores of the river, the colossal sphinxes (lions with human heads), the wonderful grottoes hewn into the rocky wall, the royal sepulchers, the subterranean death-chambers, and the gigantic Memnon column, which is said to have given forth melodious tones at the rising of the sun, are speaking witnesses of the ancient glory of the city of the Pharaohs.



ASSYRIAN HIGH PRIEST AND KING.

Further down the stream lay the ancient city of Memphis, equally noteworthy for its monuments. To these belong the ruins of the *labyrinth*, a royal palace, consisting



TEMPLE OF CHESNU AT KARNAK. (Built by Rameses II.)

of many chambers, courts vestibules and corridors, all connected with each other. Here too are the pyramids, erected upon a lonely, rocky plateau, on the edge of the desert. These are, even now, regarded as the miracles of a daring and powerful architecture. As soon as a new king ascended the throne, he began the building of a sepulchre, in which his body was to lie; fortified it by blocks of stone and strong walls, and enlarged it in the course of years, by surrounding

structures to an artificial mountain. The longer his government lasted, the greater became the pyramid of the king of Memphis. Below Memphis where the North land or Lower Egypt begins, the Nile is divided into two main streams and several



branches, and expands the valley to a great plain, where fruitful fields alternate with grassy meadows, and where forests of palm trees adorn the shores. Still further down it breaks through swamp and marsh into the sea. This is the Delta, the



PYRAMIDS AT GIZEH.

fertility of which made Egypt the granary of the ancient world. Here were situated Heliopolis, the city of the sun, and the noteworthy places Sais, Naukratis, and Busiris.

§ 12. Egypt possessed, in the remotest times, innumerable cities and villages, and a high culture. Sciences, arts, and industries were cultivated to such an extent, that



BRONZE IMAGES OF BULL APIS.

the land of the Nile has been always looked upon as the mysterious cradle of all human progress. Yet the character of the people, and the influence of an all-powerful, royal and priestly domination hindered free development, and prevented advancement. Everything was devoted to the service of a gloomy religion and a powerful hierarchy, which held the people in subjection, fear, and superstition. The belief that after death, the soul found eternal peace only when the body was preserved, led to the embalming of the dead, and to the preservation of mummies in corridors, and death chambers. The



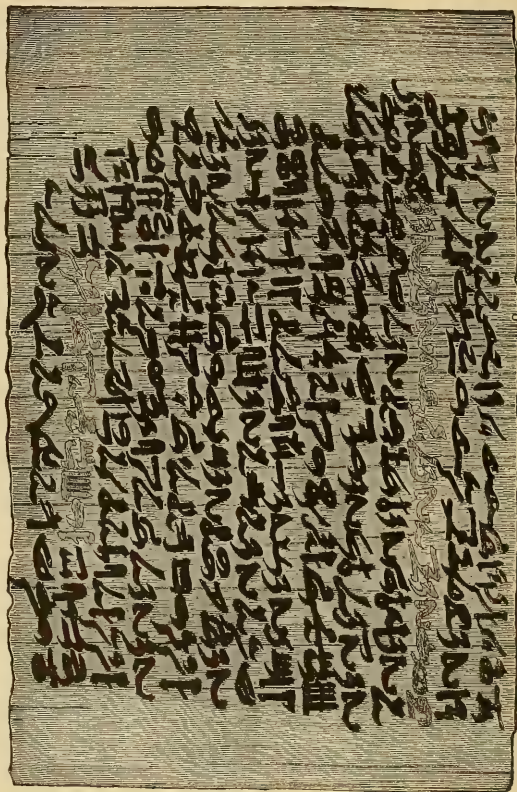
BUILDING OF THE PYRAMIDS. (G. Richter.)

(pp. 45.)

priests, as judges of the dead, assumed the power of devoting the corpses of the wicked to destruction; and of compelling the doomed soul to wander through the bodies of countless animals. Thus they acquired great authority.

The religion of the Egyptians was principally the worship of the sun, and originated in the character of the country. This found allegorical expression in the sacred marriage of the sun-god Osiris, with Isis the goddess of the Nile. But the other gods of the Egyptians were also deities of light and of the sun; among these were Ra or Phra (whence many derive the word Pharaoh), and also the Theban Ammon and the creative natural power Ptah. But since the Egyptians worshiped, not only these deities, but also the animals consecrated to them, their religion degenerated gradually into a symbolism connected with a horrible worship of dumb brutes.

Not only the bull Apis, who, as symbol of the sun, was regarded as especially sacred, but cows, cats, serpents, dogs, and crocodiles, received divine honors. This led naturally to a degenerate art. The statues of the gods, hewn out of hard stone, with their rigid attitudes, and passive solemnity, carry for the most part the heads of animals. Colossal as was the Egyptian architecture, skillful as the Egyptians



HIEROGLYPHIC WRITING. (*Tinted letters in red in the original.*)

were in sculpture and in the various industrial arts, they have, nevertheless, contributed little of importance and of permanence to the sciences and to literature. And even this was concealed from the people in their hieroglyphic script. There were three kinds of hieroglyphics, which are to be found, partly in the papyrus rolls, partly on the obelisks. These latter were four cornered columns, hewn out of a single block of granite, covered with inscriptions, and placed at the porches of their temples.



Egypt was early an object of admiration and of curiosity to the Greeks, and is still the wonder of mankind. Eleven obelisks and countless Egyptian monuments, hewn from the hardest stone, are now preserved in Rome; and the museums and cabinets of Europe contain a great multitude of mummies, antique vessels, ornaments, and papyrus rolls. The perseverance and the skill of the Egyptians excite our astonishment, and yet we notice everywhere the lack of free development, and creative activity, and of personal freedom. The curse of royal and priestly despotism blighted every form of Egyptian life; superstitious and religious gloom darkened their existence. The monuments reveal to us a life without courage, in which the enjoyments of the hour alternate with ever-present thoughts of death.\*

§ 13. At the entrance to the Delta, where the stream is divided into several branches, stood the ancient state, the capital of which was the city

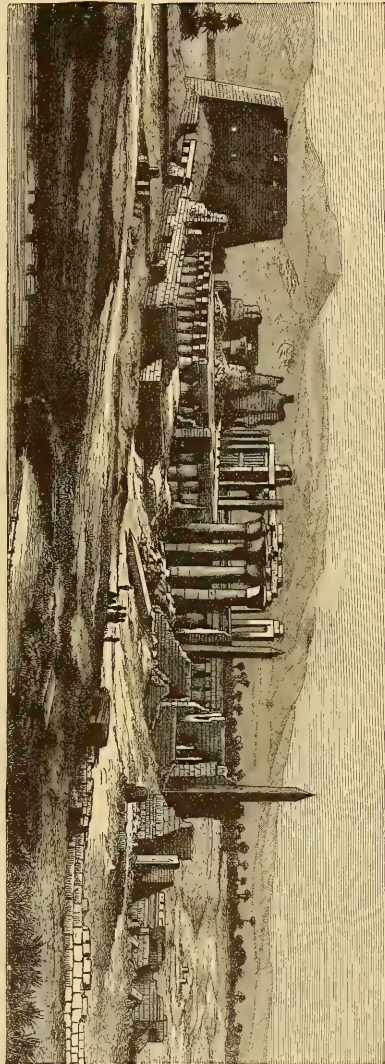
*Menes, about* of Memphis. Its supposed founder was  
*B. C. 3000.*  
*Cheops, about* Menes. Cheops and  
*B. C. 2500.* Mœris are the most  
*Mœris, about* famous names in the  
*B. C. 2200.* succeeding list of kings.

The first was builder of the great pyramid, 450 feet high, upon which 100,000 men are said to have labored forty years. The second was famed for the great lake that bears his name, and which was doubtless used to regulate the overflow of the Nile. Shortly after the death of Mœris (so the Egyptians say), wandering tribes from Syria and from North Arabia invaded the country, subdued the kingdom, and

*About* governed with cruel violence, the tributary race. This tyranny of the

\* The name Pharaoh is derived from Peraa "great house" that is, palace, a designation that reminds us of the Sublime Porte.

RUINS AT KAHNAK.





Hyksos or shepherds, lasted for five centuries, until finally the kings of Upper

**B. C. 1580.** Egypt (Thebes) accomplished the deliverance of the land. The hundred-gated Thebes now became the residence of the Pharaohs, among whom Rameses the Great, whom the Greeks called Sesostris, was the most famous. He

**Sesostris,**  
**1396-1328.** compelled Ethiopia to pay tribute, and pushed, with his victorious armies and chariots, into Syria, Asia Minor, and Mesopotamia. He adorned the kingdom with royal palaces and temples, the grandeur and splendor of which may yet be seen in the broken columns, and in the colossal fragments of statues and sculptured walls. Rameses-Sesostris became, in subsequent years, a half mythical name, about which clustered the mighty deeds of father and son for a whole century.



EGYPTIAN WAR CHARIOT.

**Psammetichus,** Greeks, and colonized Egypt with Hellenic mercenaries. This

**B. C. 670-616.** innovation embittered the people, and 200,000 of the priest and warrior caste emigrated to Nubia, and founded there the priestly state, Meroe. This was an imitation of the kingdom of the Pharaohs in Thebes, as is shown by the monuments that still strew its former site, upon the Upper Nile, and lie scattered over desert plains, which are here and there broken by groups of palm trees. Necho and Amasis are noteworthy successors of Psammetichus.

**Necho,** The former was the founder of the Egyptian sea-power and navigation. The canal begun by Rameses, from the Nile to the Red Sea, was continued by him, and the southcoast of Africa was explored by Phœnician sailors, under his command. The latter favored Hellenic culture and

But the power of Thebes vanished also. The kings of Ethiopia trampled Upper Egypt with their iron feet; and the rulers of Assyria lorded it in Lower Egypt, collecting from their governors and subject-kings, an oppressive tribute. Not until after the time of Assurbanipal did this period of Assyrian tyranny, called "the domination of the twelve," come to an end. Psammetichus of Sais, with the help of Ionian and Karian mercenaries, acquired, in the seventh century, possession of Upper Egypt. To secure his throne more firmly, he made an alliance with the

*Amasis*, furthered the emigration of Greek merchants, who brought into Lower Egypt riches and luxury, so that Sais could rival with its works of art and monuments, both Thebes and Memphis. But the days of its glory were numbered. Amasis was hardly laid to rest in the temple court at Sais, when the Persian king, Cambyses, invaded Egypt with his army. In the bloody battle of Pelusium (Suez), Psammetichus lost his kingdom to the Persians, who now ruled over it for two centuries. The Egyptian people, however, would not mix with their conquerors; they preserved their customs, institutions, and religious usages, and also their hatred for everything foreign.



EGYPTIAN KING IN WAR CHARIOT, AND WARRIORS.

#### 6. PHŒNICIANS.

§ 14. On the narrow strip of coast, between the Mediterranean Sea and the Cedars of Lebanon, dwelt the sea-faring and trading race of Phœnicians. Of their numerous cities, Sidon and Tyre were the most important. They were too active and energetic to endure either the system of caste or of depotism, like other oriental races. On the contrary, each city, with its

adjacent territory, formed an independent community, at the head of which stood an hereditary king, whose power was greatly limited by aristocratic families, and by priests. These independent communities formed a union, of which at first Sidon, the market place of the nation, and afterward Tyre was the head. Opposite the coast city of Tyre lay a rocky island with its fortified harbor, its great warehouses, and its ancient temple of the guardian deity, Melkart. Industry and inventiveness characterized the Phœnicians. They manufactured glass, discovered dye stuffs, and invented letters. They were distinguished for their metal work, their weaving, and their architecture. Sidonian garments, Tyrian purple, Phœnician glassware, vessels of ivory and gold, were sought for in all the cities of antiquity.

The favorable situation of the country led them



EGYPTIAN QUEEN AND LADIES.

to the sea; the cedars of Lebanon furnished them wood for shipbuilding. The Phœnicians, with their handsome ships, visited the coast-lands and the islands of the

Mediterranean Sea, not only to carry their own products, but to obtain the products of the distant East, spices, incense, oil, wine, corn, and slaves. They established manufactories and dye-houses, opened up mines, ventured out into the unknown



PHŒNICIAN SCENE AT COURT. (*Paul Phillippoteaux.*)

seas of the North, purchased tin at the British islands, and amber from the inhabitants of the Baltic; and entered upon daring voyages to South Arabia, East Africa, and India. Beyond doubt, the Phœnician sailors were in the service of the Egyptian king Necho, in a three years' voyage from the Red Sea around the African coast; and ventured farther than any other people of antiquity. The Phœnicians united the Orient with the Occident; they founded colonies at Crete and Cyprus; they built factories on the island of Sicily; they made the splendid harbor of Malta a station for their western route, and built on the opposite coast, upon a promontory which they converted into an island, by means of a canal, the commercial city of Utica. This city of North Africa, a country rich in olives, date-trees, and grape vines, was built to resemble the mother city Tyre. For

the Tyrians delighted in island-colonies containing a castle and a sanctuary, which offered a secure haven for their ships, and a safe landing place for their goods, and united the neighboring coast into a twin city. In like manner they founded the city of Gades (Cadiz), at the pillars of Hercules, uniting it also with the coast. This city



with the sanctuary of the Tyrian god Melkart (Hercules), was the support and the emporium of the Spanish trade, where the ships of Tarshish, mentioned by the prophet Jonah, landed, in order to convey the treasures of the land, so rich in metals, to their Eastern home. But the most famous colony of the Tyrians was the new city of Carthage, on the coast of North Africa, which soon eclipsed the mother country by its commercial greatness, its wealth, and its marine power. A woman of royal race, Elissa or Dido, is said

**B. C. 880.** to have founded Carthage, with a number of noble emigrants from Tyre. The story of the ox-hide used at the founding of the city, marks the character of the Phœnicians, whose cunning and astuteness were renowned in all antiquity.



EARLY PHŒNICIAN COIN.

PHŒNICIAN FLEET. (*Paul Phillippoteaux.*)

Their religion was of less consequence to the Phœnicians, than to other oriental races. The worship of Moloch required cruel human sacrifices, and that of Baal and Astarte obscene usages and festivals.



COIN OF TYRE.

§ 15. The warlike races of Western Asia sharply tested the bravery and the patriotism of the Phœnicians. When the Assyrian Sargon subdued and made them tributary, the richer citizens of Tyre removed to the neighboring rocky island, where, hitherto, only their sanctuaries and their warehouses were to be found, and defended Island Tyre for five years with triumphant success. And the Tyrian navy soon ruled



**B. C. 590.** the sea a second time. Even the Babylonian Nebuchadnezzar, who conquered the Phœnician mainland, and deported the inhabitants of old Tyre, like the Jews, to the interior of his kingdom, was unable to shatter the courage of the island city. Defended by its position, by its enormous walls and breakwaters, it defied all attacks. But these repeated blows wore away the energy of the Tyrians, for when the Persians

**B. C. 510.** afterward subdued the lands of Asia Minor, even Tyre lost her freedom and her independence. Phœnicia became a Persian province; the colonial cities in the West fell away, and joined of choice, or by compulsion, the city of Carthage. The Greeks acquired the trade in the Ægean Sea, and the Phœnician colonies in Crete, Rhodos, Thasos, and other islands, with their rich ore banks. The oppression of the Persians, in the middle of the fourth century, provoked a revolt, of which Sidon was the leader. It miscarried; Sidon fell into the hands of the Persian king, and when he ordered the oldest citizens to be executed, the inhabitants set fire to their city, and were burned to death with their treasures. Tyre lasted a while longer. But

**B. C. 332.** when the Macedonian Alexander overthrew the Persian empire, and Tyre ventured to oppose the conqueror, the city was conquered, after a seven months' siege, and cruelly punished. It never recovered from the blow; its commerce and its marine power withdrew to Alexandria.

## 7. THE PEOPLE ISRAEL.

§ 16. While the whole world was worshiping the invisible god-head, in the forces and phenomena of nature, and of the sky; a people of shepherds, sprung from a Semitic family in Mesopotamia, came to believe in a personal God, who, as creator

*Abraham.*

**B. C. 2000.** Abraham the Hebrew, one of the patriarchs of this Nomad race, with his herds, his men servants and his maid servants, and his nephew Lot, abandoned his native pastures and settled in the land of Canaan, where they continued their pastoral life; and where they were called by the original inhabitants Hebrews, that is "the

*Isaac.* strangers from beyond." Isaac, whom Sarah bore to Abraham in his old age, continued the family; while Ishmael, his son by his servant Hagar, went into the desert, and according to the sacred tradition of the Semites, became the progenitor of the Arabs. Isaac married Rebecca, who bore him two sons, Esau and Jacob. The

*Jacob.* mother's cunning made the younger son, Jacob, the chief of the tribe, but could not save him from a long period of trial, before he came to his inheritance.

*Joseph.* Jacob had twelve sons, but as his love preferred Joseph, the child of his beloved Rachel, the others, filled with envy, determined to rid themselves of their brother, and sold him to Ishmaelite traders, who carried him into Egypt. In Egypt Joseph resisted temptation, and was rewarded for his virtue, with fortune and wisdom. His skill in the interpretation of dreams, obtained for him the favor of the Egyptian king, and he came to great dignity and honor. He saved the land from famine, and made all the fields the property of Pharaoh, so that the people rented their farms, and cultivated them for a rental of one-fifth the produce. Joseph thus acquired such authority, that it was permitted him to bring his father and his brothers to Egypt, where the rich pasture land of Goshen, in lower Egypt, was given them for a dwelling place. Here, in the neighborhood of Heliopolis, they pastured their herds for centuries. Joseph became the darling figure of oriental poetry and tradition. The Hebrews were called Israelites, from Jacob's surname Israel.



ABRAHAM JOURNEYING INTO CANAAN. (*Gustave Doré.*

H. ELKAN

(pp. 53.)

§ 17. The Israelites at first were happy in the rich pastures of Goshen. But when Joseph died, and new kings governed, who knew nothing of his services, the Egyptians were driven, by their hatred for strangers, and their contempt of shepherds, to great severity and cruelty against the descendants of Abraham. They oppressed them by heavy tasks, and, when they increased rapidly in spite of this oppression, the Egyptians grew afraid, and Pharaoh commanded his officers to drown the new-born male children of the Hebrews in the Nile. Moses would have met this fate, if the

*Moses.*

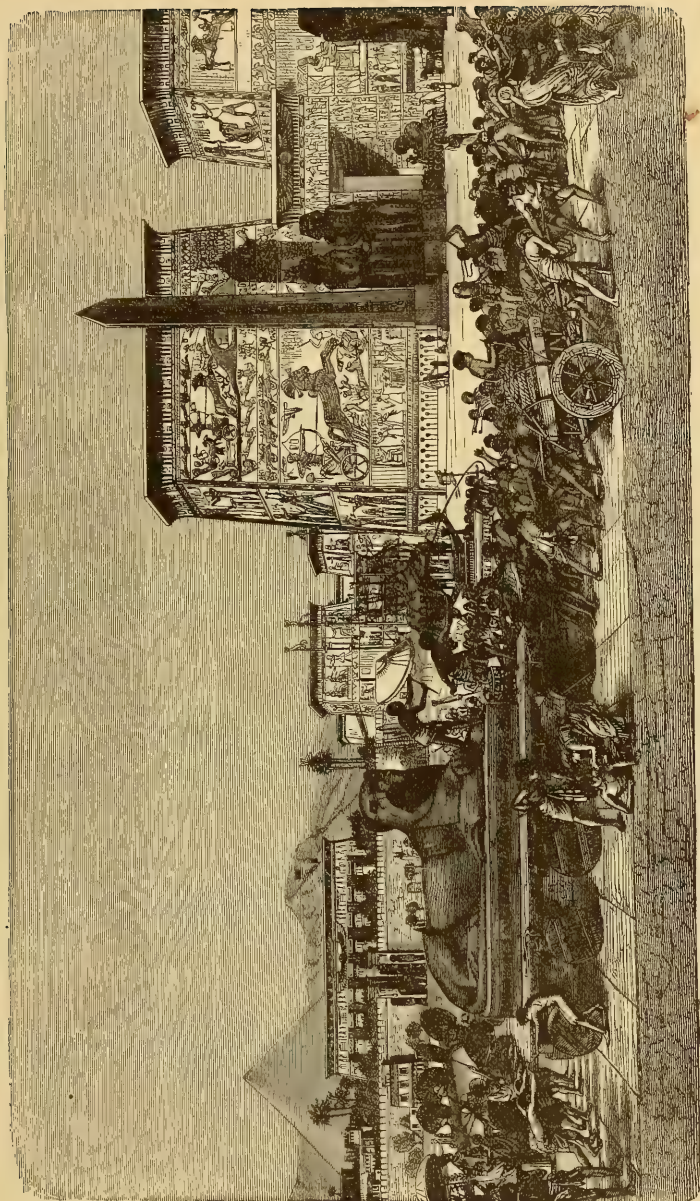
king's daughter had not happened to be walking along the shore when he was exposed, and had not pitied and saved the child. He was taken to the Egyptian court, where he was carefully educated and instructed in all the wisdom of the Egyptians. His murder of an Egyptian, whom he saw abusing an Israelite, compelled him, in his fortieth year, to flee into the Arabian desert. Here the great thought came to him, to become the savior of his people from Egyptian bondage. Pharaoh refused, at first, to let the people go, but the ten plagues, by which the land was visited, created such terror, that he finally consented to the departure asked for by Moses and his brother Aaron. In memory of their departure, and of the death of the first born of Egypt at the hands of the Lord, the Jews established the feast of the Passover, i. e. Jehovah's passing by the doors of the Hebrews. At this feast they sacrificed the paschal lamb, their loins girded for the journey, and the staff in hand. The attempt to compel the return of the Israelites, at their crossing of the Red Sea, resulted in the destruction of their pursuers. The waves covered Pharaoh's army, with his horses and his chariots; and Miriam, Moses' sister, and the women of the company, sang a song to Jehovah, with timbrel and dance, because the mighty hand of the Lord had destroyed their enemy, and hurled Pharaoh's wagon and army to the bottom of the sea. "Thou didst blow with thy breath and the sea covered them; they sank like lead in the mighty waters."

§ 18. Nevertheless the people hungered for the flesh pots of Egypt, and for forty years Moses led them in the wilderness, in order to strengthen their bodies, and to restore to them morality, and a sense of freedom; and until a new generation should grow up, possessing the courage and the force to conquer the land, where their fathers had dwelled. During this time, Moses established the religion and the common-wealth of Israel at Mt. Sinai, by the Ten Commandments and other laws. These commandments were written upon tables of stone, and preserved in the ark of the covenant,



MENEPHTAH I., PHARAOH OF THE EXODUS.





ERECTION OF PUBLIC BUILDINGS IN ANCIENT EGYPT.

which stood in the innermost sacred precincts of the tabernacle, the moving temple which the Israelites carried with them through the wilderness. To explain these laws, and to conduct the sacrificial service, a priest-hood was ordained; Aaron was made high priest, and the sacred office was reserved to his posterity. The Levites supported the sons of Aaron as sacrificial priests, teachers, doctors of the law, and physicians. According to the priestly tradition, which ascribed the system to Moses, Jehovah was himself Lord and King. The chiefs and elders of the tribes carried on, in His name, the administration of law and of justice, while the high priests and the Levites, directed in all matters of religion. Sacrifices and festivals (feast of the Passover, feast of Tabernacles) formed the happy bond between Jehovah and his chosen people. Every seventh year was a Sabbath year, and the land remained untilled. What grew of its own accord, was given to the poor. Every fiftieth year was a jubilee year, when all alienated property was returned to its original possessor, in order that the inequality of riches might not be too great. The pastoral life was, at the instance of Moses, exchanged for agriculture, which became the principal occupation of his people.



JEWISH HIGH PRIEST AND LEVITES.

§ 19. The great law-giver was not permitted to lead the Israelites into the promised land. From the summit of Mt. Nebo, he overlooked the beautiful plains of the Jordan, and then departed from the land of the living. "His eye was not dim, nor

*Joshua*, his natural strength abated." Before his death he appointed Joshua,

**B. C. 1450.** the son of Nun, to be his successor; and exhorted the assembled people to hold fast to Jehovah, and to destroy utterly the Canaanites. But the people had hardly conquered the Amorites, and other tribes, before they grew weary of battle, and demanded the distribution of the conquered land. This took place, as Moses had ordered, by lot. And in such fashion that Ephraim and Manasseh received equal shares; while the posterity of Levi received no land whatever, but certain cities, a tenth part of the produce of the soil, and a share in the sacred offerings. The tribes of Reuben and Gad, with one half of Manasseh, chose the pasture land east of the Jordan, and continued the life of herdsmen. The others settled on the west of the stream, and gave themselves to the culture of grapes, figs and olives, and to the beginnings of city life.

§ 20. But powerful tribes, like the Ammonites and Philistines, forced upon the Israelites bloody and destructive wars. In their brutality and cruelty they forgot the living God, who had led them out of bondage, and fell away into idolatry, until misfortune and defeat brought them to reflection. Heroic men arose, who slew the enemy in battle, and restored the faith and the customs of their fathers. These were

*The Judges*, the Judges. The most famous among them were Gideon, Jephtha,

**B. C. 1300-1100.** Samson, the strong, and the heroine Deborah. Gideon's victory over





DROWNING OF PHARAOH'S ARMY. (*Guslave Döré.*)



the Midianites and Amalekites; the sacrifice of Jephtha's daughter; Samson's wild feats, and tragic death in the land of the Philistines, were told to each other by the tillers of the soil, as they sat under the shadow of the palm tree, and by the shepherds encamped beneath the stars. Deborah's triumphal song celebrated, in tones of jubilee, the destruction of Sisera, the Canaanite chieftain, by the hands of the woman Jael. Nevertheless the Philistines conquered the ark of the covenant, the news of which brought sudden death to the high priest Eli. They over-ran all the country, as far as the Jordan, and greatly oppressed the people. Saul, of the tribe of Benjamin, now appeared; led the people to battle, and strove successfully against the enemy.

*Samuel.*

At the same time Samuel, a pious and patriotic priest, renewed the old covenant between the Israelitish people and their God, and restored the Mosaic laws to their former influence. He established schools of the prophets, in which young men were taught the national laws and traditions, were instructed in eloquence and poetry, in music and in song. These schools of Samuel produced the inspired preachers, who, in the Bible, are spoken of as prophets. The champions of freedom, religion, and virtue, they had the greatest influence upon the development and perfection of the religious ideas of the people, and especially their conceptions of God.

§ 21. Samuel's sons did not walk in the way of their father, but denied the people justice. The Israelites now demanded a king, who should lead them to battle and to victory. Samuel sought in vain to dissuade them, picturing the sorrows and oppression of kingly rule in the darkest colors. They persisted, and compelled him to anoint their chosen leader

*Saul,*

Saul, a man of great stature, skilled in war, and victorious in battle. He broke the yoke of the Philistines in the West, and the Ammonites in the East, and gathered great spoil.

But he put his trust in his army, and obeyed not the commands of Jehovah, as spoken by the mouth of his prophet; he was therefore rejected, and the shepherd boy David, of the tribe of Judah, was secretly anointed by Samuel. David was renowned among the king's captains for his bravery, and for his devotion to the priesthood, as well as for his skill upon the harp. Saul was now troubled "by an evil spirit from the Lord;" envy, a premonition of his destiny, and a suspicion of his ambitious plans, united to drive the king to a hatred of David, to whom his own son Jonathan was entirely devoted. David, however, escaped the snares of the king, and when Saul flung himself in despair upon his own sword, after losing the battle at Gilboa, David was gradually recognized by all the tribes as king. Although he composed the beautiful psalm on the fallen heroes "who were swifter than eagles, and stronger than lions" he nevertheless destroyed root and branch of the whole family of Saul.

§ 22. David's reign is the brilliant spot of Jewish history. By successful wars



JEWISH KING AND WARRIORS.



SAMSON SLAYING THE PHILISTINES. (*Gustave Doré.*)

(pp. 59.)



*David*, he extended the kingdom to the South, and to the East; he made the Syrian city Damascus, "the eye of the Orient," his foot-stool, and broke forever the power of the Philistines. He conquered Jerusalem, with its strong tower Zion, from the Jebusites, chose it for his residence, brought thither the ark of the covenant, and thus made it the centre of Jewish worship. David was also a great poet, as is seen in his wonderful Psalms; and in spite of his many sins, in spite



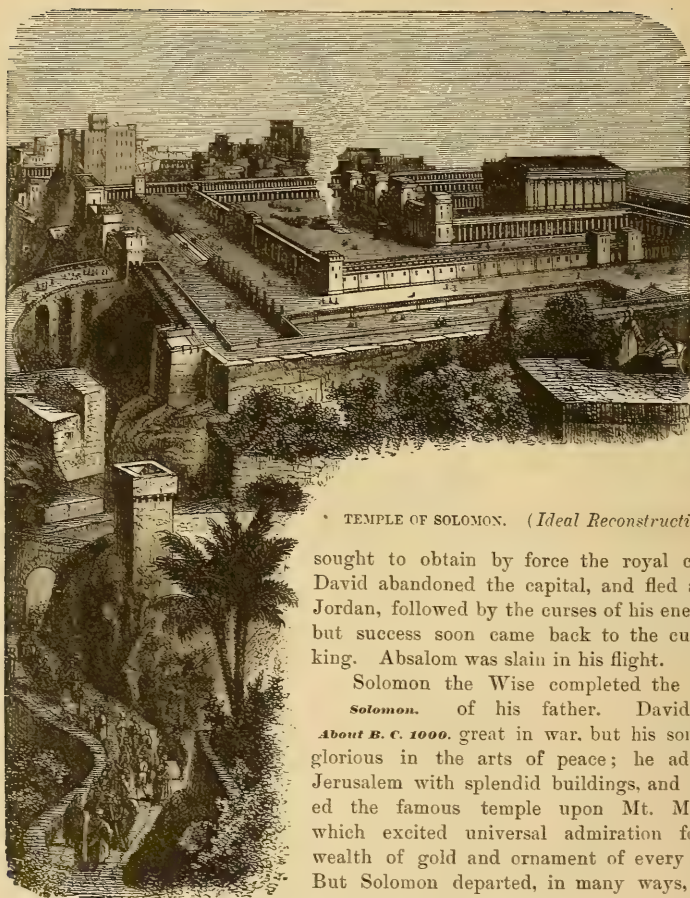
KING SOLOMON. (*Gustave Doré.*)

of his crime against Uriah, whom he robbed at once of wife and of life, he remained "the man after Jehovah's heart"; since he made good his transgressions by great virtues and services, by repentance and contrition. The end of his reign was marked by the rebellion of his favorite son Absalom, who was led astray by evil council. Trusting to the favor of the people, which his father had lost by his cruelty, the popular son





DEATH OF SAUL. (Gustave Doré.)



\* TEMPLE OF SOLOMON. (*Ideal Reconstruction.*)

sought to obtain by force the royal crown. David abandoned the capital, and fled across Jordan, followed by the curses of his enemies; but success soon came back to the cunning king. Absalom was slain in his flight.

Solomon the Wise completed the work **Solomon.** of his father. David was **About B. C. 1000.** great in war, but his son was glorious in the arts of peace; he adorned Jerusalem with splendid buildings, and erected the famous temple upon Mt. Moriah, which excited universal admiration for its wealth of gold and ornament of every kind. But Solomon departed, in many ways, from the laws of Moses. He took part in the

great commercial undertakings of the Phœnicians, and piled up great treasures, which increased his love of luxury and sensuality. He procured for himself foreign wives, to whom he permitted idolatry in which he himself took part. His admirable wisdom, his skill in answering difficult questions and solving riddles, although still admired in the legends of the East, did not protect him, while living, from great folly. His extravagance caused the taxes to be so oppressive, that a rebellion took place during his life time. This was put down, and the leader, Jeroboam,

**Jeroboam.** compelled to fly. But when Solomon's son, Rehoboam, threatened **Rehoboam.** to reject the demands of the people, ten tribes fell away from





HABIBANT

HAULING THE CEDARS OF LEBANON FOR THE TEMPLE. (*Gustave Doré.*) (pp. 63.)



him, and chose Jeroboam to be their king. Only Judah and Benjamin remained faithful to the house of David.

§ 23. This gave rise to two unequal kingdoms; the kingdom of Israel, composed of ten tribes, with the two capitals Shechem and Samaria; and the kingdom of Judah, composed of two tribes, with its capital Jerusalem. As the latter city contained the ark of the covenant, and was therefore looked upon by the Levites, and many pious Israelites, as the true capital, Jeroboam erected in the South and the North of his kingdom, idolatrous pictures, and commanded the people to sacrifice, as in the ancient



OBELISK OF SHALMANESER, FROM NINEVEH. (*British Museum.*)

times, upon the mountain tops,—a sin of which all his successors were guilty. One of the mightiest of them was Ahab, whose wife Jezebel, of Tyre, introduced the blasphemous service of Baal, and raged cruelly against all who would not bow before him. She hunted for the life of the prophet Elias, and compelled him to take refuge in the wilderness, and at Mt. Carmel. Through her daughter Athaliah, who was married to the king of Judah, the foreign religion was brought into this kingdom also, and protected by the court. As a consequence, there was strife and civil war between the two kingdoms, whereby both were weakened, and driven to form alliances with foreign nations. They drove out the Prophets, who

boldly prophesied the destruction of the commonwealth, if the worship of Jehovah was driven out by the worship of idols. But persecution only increased their courage and power. In the deserts and in the wilderness, amid privations and chastisements, their faith grew stronger, and their inner vision became more clear. When Ahab re-

*Jehu, about* ceived his death wound, in fight against the king of Damascus, Jehu,

*B. C. 860.* his captain, with the help of the prophet Elisha, and of the servants

*Joaz, about* of Jehovah, ascended the throne of Samaria. Athaliah was mur-

*B. C. 850.* dered: Joaz became king of Judah, and restored the worship of Je-

hovah. But these religious quarrels weakened the people. The prophets Joel, Hosea,

*Jeroboam, about* and Amos proclaimed their woes in the days of Jeroboam II, when the

*B. C. 800.* kingdom of the ten tribes was enjoying its last prosperous days; and

the prophet Isaiah was creating, by his patriotic activity, a great religious and national revival, at the very time that foreign armies were threatening Jerusalem, and the land of Judah.

§ 24. The Assyrians, under Tiglath-Pileser and Shalmaneser IV., invaded the kingdom of Israel; and when the king concluded an alliance with Egypt, in order to escape the payment of tribute, the Assyrian king, Sargon II, invaded the country again with his veteran army, conquered Samaria, and carried the king, with the greater

*B. C. 710.* part of his people, into Assyrian bondage. They received new dwell-

ing places along the rivers of Armenia, and in the cities of the Medes, while foreign people from the Euphrates migrated to the green hills of Samaria. From their inter-marriage with the few remaining Israelites came the Samaritans. Judah existed 180 years longer. It became tributary to the Assyrians, after the fall of Israel; but when

these went to war with the Egyptians, the king of Judah took part with the latter, and refused to pay tribute. The Assyrian king, Sennacherib, marched against, and besieged

*Hezekiah,* Jerusalem. But the pious king Hezekiah, the friend of Isaiah, occupied

*B. C. 725-696.* the throne. A sudden plague so decimated the Assyrian army, that the king did not venture to meet the approaching Egyptians, but abandoned Jerusalem

*Manasseh,* and returned to Nineveh. Isaiah's prophecy was fulfilled. Neverthe-

*B. C. 695-610.* less, King Manasseh fell into idolatry, and persecuted bitterly the servants of Jehovah. "The sword devoured the prophets, like a raging lion." The

*Josiah,* servants of Jehovah, led by the prophet Jeremiah, used, therefore, the

*B. C. 638-608.* reign of the pious young king Josiah, to re-establish the Mosaic law, and the theocratic state. They discovered and introduced the second law, Deuteronomy, or the fifth book of the Pentateuch. But the struggle against Nineveh brought sore distress to Palestine. Josiah received his death wound in the battle of Megiddo, fought against the Egyptian king Necho, who wished to conquer Canaan. And then came Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon, the conqueror of the Egyptians. He entered

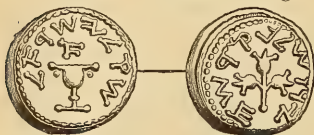
*B. C. 597.* Jerusalem, robbed the temple, led the king and the chief inhabitants into captivity, and sorely oppressed those that remained. This induced the last king Zedekiah, who trusted in Egyptian support, to attempt once more the fortune of arms, but without success. Nebuchadnezzar burnt temple and city, slaughtered the citizens,

*B. C. 588.* and led away the blinded king, with the greatest part of the people, into the Babylonian captivity. Jeremiah had sought in vain to prevent this reliance of the king upon Egypt, "the rotten reed," and had urged the people to bear the yoke of the Chaldeans, that Jehovah had laid upon them, for their chastisement. He now be-

took himself to Egypt, where he bemoaned the fall, and the destruction of his country. The Jews, in Babylon, returned to the God of their fathers, and found favor in his

**B. C. 538.** presence. For when Babylon was conquered by the Persians, some of them were permitted, by Cyrus, to return to their homes. These came back under the lead of Zerubbabel, and began to rebuild the temple. The Samaritans, whom they carefully avoided, sought to prevent their undertaking, and procured an edict against

**B. C. 514.** further building. And this was not resumed until the days of Darius.



JEWISH SHEKEL. (Time of Ezra.)

When Artaxerxes ruled over Persia, another company led by Ezra and Nehemiah, returned to

**B. C. 457.** the old home, rebuilt the city, and restored the Mosaic laws. Misfortune had taught them that their only salvation was in the faith of their fathers, hence they avoided most carefully, from this time forward, the worship of idols, and

all contact with the idolatrous heathen; but their new "city of God" was a city of priests, in which a slavish service of the law took the place of the religious enthusiasm of former times.

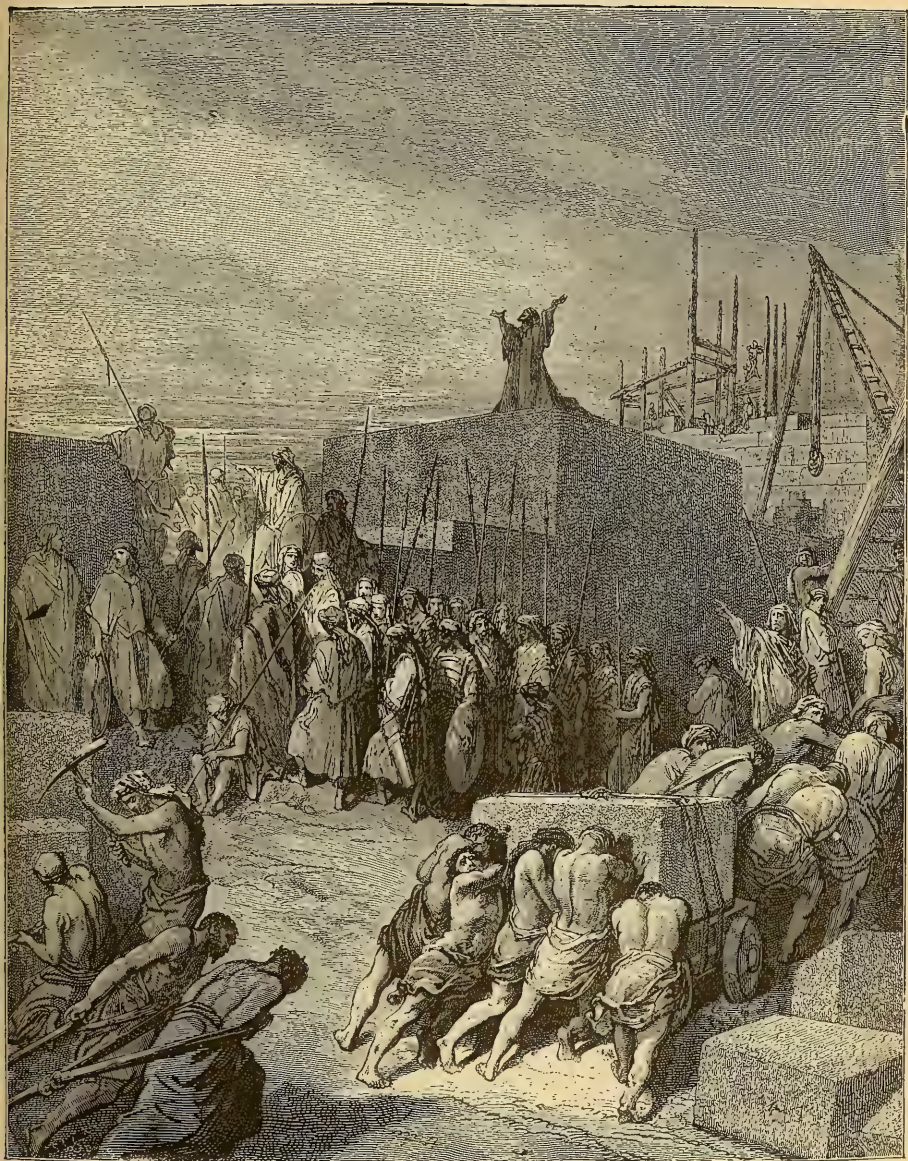
#### b. *Hebrew Literature.*

§ 24. The literature of the Jews, like their history and their institutions of state, relates to the worship of Jehovah. This literature is divided into the historic, poetic, and prophetic writings. The historic books contain the history of the founding of the theocratic kingdom, and the origin of the law. These books are strictly national, and constitute a religious epic. The poetical writings are partly *lyric*, like the Psalms, to which David gave a distinctive character, although comparatively few of the existing collection were written by him; and partly *didactic*, like the book of Job, or the book of Proverbs. The Psalms mirror the religious thought of the Jewish people, yet not with the same energy as the warning, rebuke and prophecies of the inspired prophets. Salvation is to be found in obedience to the divine command. Ruin comes to the disobedient. In their tribulations, the avenging hand of God is manifest, and the only means to avert his wrath is sincere repentance. But this repentance is not sacrifice, or prayer, or fasting, but an upright walk, and a pure life. The stream of their thoughts was, to the prophets, the mind of Jehovah, "the burden of the Lord," laid upon them. They warned, they threatened, they commanded, they foretold in his name, and by his spirit. The most important of the prophets lived in the time of the Assyrian wars; among these, Isaiah is the mightiest. The sciences, and the plastic arts, had small place among the Jews; their nature was unartistic, and their severe monotheism hindered the development of sculpture and of painting.

#### 8. MEDES AND PERSIANS.

§ 25. Media and Persia are two lands in which rough mountain regions, full of picturesque beauty, alternate with fertile pastures and rich arable prairies. They were formerly inhabited by races, who derive their origin from the primitive Zends, who dwelt still further to the East. The founder of their religion was an ancient sage Zoroaster, who deposited the revelation given him in the sacred book Zendavesta. He taught that the Supreme Being was a dual being, a god of light, Ormuzd,





REBUILDING THE TEMPLE. (*Gustave Doré.*)

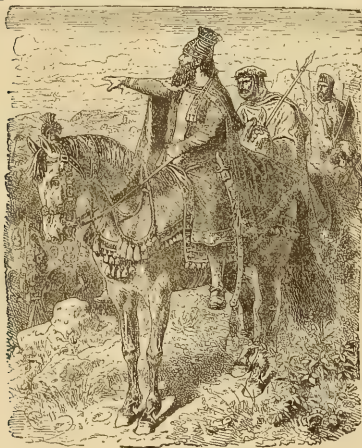
and a spirit of darkness, Ahriman. Both have hosts of similar spirits under their control, who carry on perpetual war with each other, striving for dominion over man and the world. The god of light will finally conquer, evil will disappear, and the human race will enter into blessedness. The Magi, a powerful body of priests, symbolized this doctrine in a solemn worship. The god of light was symbolized, and worshiped in the sun and in fire. The spirit of darkness was kept aloof by sacrifices and prayers, by absolutions and purifications, by resisting and destroying evil in the outer world, and in the human breast.



ANCIENT PERSIAN COIN.

§ 26. For a long time the Medes endured the dominion of foreign races, but they finally took courage and struggled heroically for freedom. Warlike kings soon succeeded in destroying this newly acquired freedom of the people, and established over them an unlimited rule. At the same time these kings subjugated the neighboring races, among them the kindred people of Persia, who for centuries had pastured their herds, hunted and fought, in the beautiful Farsistan, the land of horses. But this dominion was of short duration. Astyages, the last of the Median kings (Herodotus tells us), had a vision, which the soothsayers interpreted to mean that the

*Astyages about* son of his daughter would rule over Media and Asia Minor. When **B. C. 555.** his daughter, who was married to a prince of the subject Persians, gave birth to her son Cyrus, Astyages gave him to his courtier Harpagus, with the



CYRUS THE GREAT.

command to put him to death, in order that the Persians might not acquire power over the Medes. Harpagus entrusted the murder to a shepherd, who, instead of killing the child, brought him up as his own son. But the boy made known his royal nature even in his play, which caused him to be brought to the king, and to be recognized. Astyages, set at rest in his mind by the soothsayers, caused Cyrus to be educated according to his rank, and when he grew up, sent him to Persia to his parents. Here the thought seized him of delivering the brave but subject race from Median bondage, and of setting forth with the Persians to victory and conquest. His powerful mind, and his commanding nature, excited the wonder of the Persians, and they followed him eagerly; he attacked the Medes, and Harpagus commander of the royal army, because he had been shamefully treated by the king, deserted with his troops to Cyrus.

*Cyrus,*

**B. C. 558-529.**

Astyages, betrayed and conquered, abandoned the throne to his fortunate grandson, who became the founder of a universal kingdom, that embraced all the civilized countries of Asia.

§ 27. About the same time Lydia, the capital of which was Sardis, was governed





CRÆSUS ON THE FUNERAL PYRE. (*H. Vogel.*)

(pp. 69.)



by king Cræsus, whose name has become proverbial, because of his exceeding riches.

*Cyrus and Cræsus.* He was the friend and ally of Astyages, and was therefore attacked by Cyrus. Deceived by an ambiguous oracle, Cræsus crossed the river Halys to attack the Persians, but suffered defeat and retreated in haste to his capital.

**B. C. 549.** Cyrus pursued him, conquered Sardis, and commanded that the captive King should be given to the flames. Cræsus was already tied to the stake (so the story goes), when the recollection of the Athenian sage Solon saved him from destruction. This great statesman had visited Sardis, and been welcomed by the king. Cræsus led him proudly through his treasure vaults, and showed him all his riches; and then asked him whom he counted the happiest of mortals. But Solon, instead of naming Cræsus, named the Athenian Pallas, for he had sufficient property, handsome and well-behaved sons and grandsons, and had fallen in victorious battle against the enemies of his country, and had been buried by the Athenians, at the spot where he fell. When Cræsus pressed him further, he named two lads, Cleobis and Biton, sons of a priestess in Argos. For he said, when the mother of these lads needed to go to the temple to a sacrifice, and the oxen were not at hand, the lads had yoked themselves to the wagon, and pulled it to the temple. The mother thereupon beseeching the gods to give her boys the best of all rewards, they fell asleep in the temple and never woke again. When Cræsus expressed his displeasure that Solon did not count him as fortunate as a common citizen, the latter replied, "call no man fortunate till he dies!" These words came back to Cræsus, first when his favorite son Attys was brought home dead from the hunting field, and now a second time, in his distress, and he cried "Oh, Solon, Solon!" His outcry excited the curiosity of the Persian king, who asked for an explanation, and struck by the truth of Solon's words, he set Cræsus at liberty, and held him afterward in high honor, consulting him in all his undertakings.

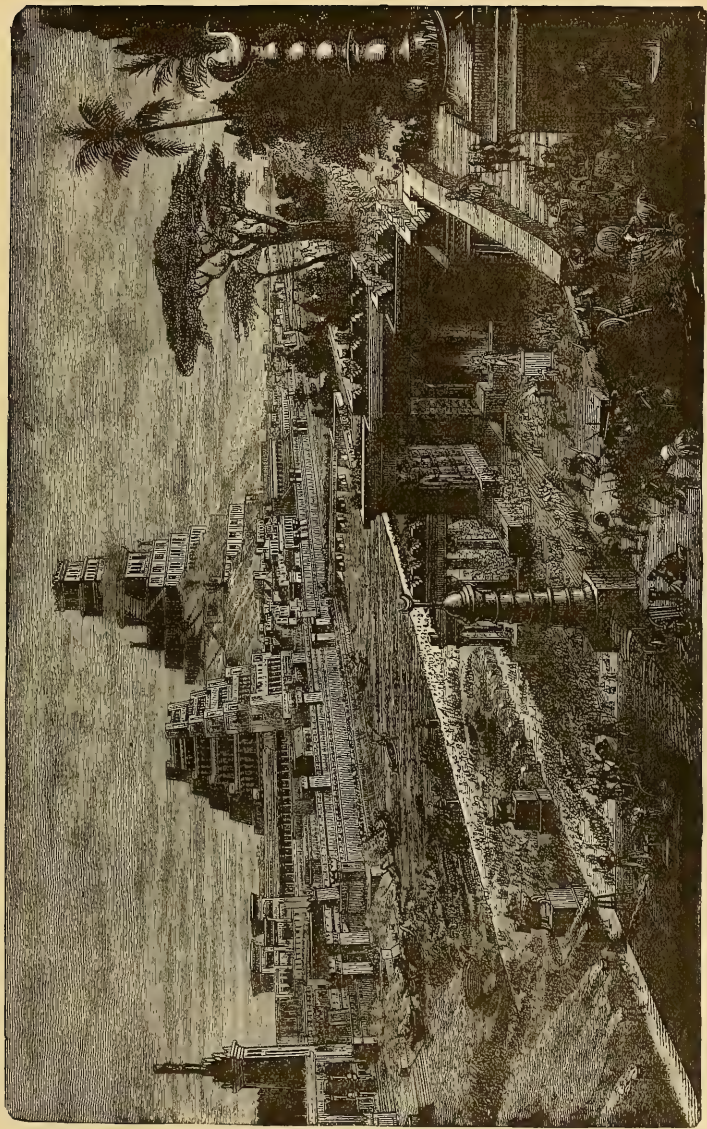
§ 28. Cyrus conquered next, the Babylonian kingdom. The Babylonians were holding a great feast, and exulting in their invincibility, when the Persians cut through the channel of the Euphrates (the water of which they had diverted from its course), entered the city, slew the king Nabonetus (Belshazzar), in his palace, and conquered

**B. C. 538.** the country. This brought Syria, Palestine and Phœnicia under the dominion of the Persians, and the captured Jews received from Koresh (Cyrus) "the anointed of Jehovah" permission to return home. "How art thou fallen from heaven, O Lucifer, son of the morning!" cried at that time the voice of the prophet, exulting in the destruction of Babylon; "How art thou cut down to the ground, which didst weaken the nations!"

Shortly after this, Cyrus undertook a campaign against the Massagetae, a Nomad tribe near the Caspian Sea. By a stratagem he captured a great part of the hostile



TOMB OF CYRUS.



(pld.)



army, together with its leader, a son of the Queen Tomyris. The captured chief was so mortified that, even though Cyrus set him free, he put himself to death. The queen, his mother, gathered all her people about her, and thirsting for revenge,

**B. C. 529.** attacked the Persians at the river Yaxartes. Tomyris was victorious. She destroyed Cyrus and nearly all his army. The head of the mighty Persian King was hewn from his shoulders, and plunged in a vessel filled with blood, the angry queen exclaiming, "Now take thy fill of blood, thou who in thy life time couldst never get enough!"



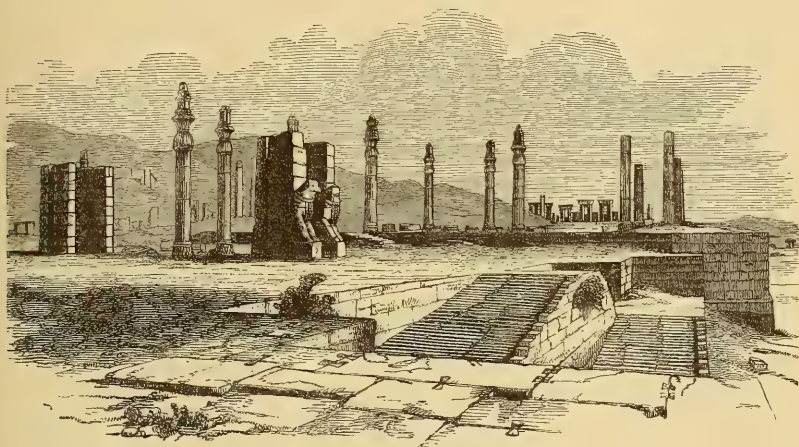
CAMBYSSES KILLS THE SACRED BULL. (H. Vogel.)

§ 29. Cambyses, the warlike and powerful son of Cyrus, extended the kingdom *Cambyses*, by the conquest of Egypt. The unfortunate king Psammetichus was

**B. C. 529-522.** taken prisoner, and compelled to behold his people outraged, and his children put to shame. Cambyses, embittered because the king of Egypt had once given him, not his own daughter, but the daughter of his predecessor for a wife, compelled the Princess and the noble virgins of Egypt to put on the garments of slaves,



and to draw water. The Crown Prince and 2,000 young Egyptians were put to death. All present except Psammetichus, at the sight of such misery, broke forth in lamentation. But when one of his former companions passed by, and begged the warrior for an alms, Psammetichus, the wretched king, lifted up his voice and wept aloud. And when Cambyses asked him the reason, he answered: "The misery of my family is too great for tears, but this of my friend makes me weep." Psammetichus died a violent death. The Egyptian temples and the statues of their gods were desecrated, the sacred animals slaughtered, the treasures stolen, the people oppressed and scorned. But now the Persians suffered an evil fate. Two armies sent by Cambyses to conquer Ammonium, were lost in the deserts of Libya. This state had its chief center in the sanctuary and oracle of the ram-horned Zeus-Ammon, in the oasis Siwah; and, like the old priest-state Meroe, which was situated in Nubia, in the midst of a savage Negro



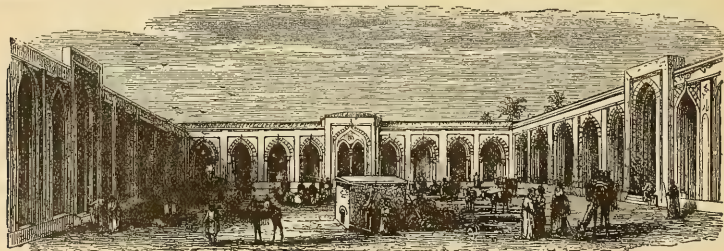
THE RUINS OF PERSEPOLIS.

population, was a colony of Thebes, the city of the Pharaohs. It was an enchanting island, in the midst of an endless desert, a green fruitful place, full of palm trees, about the clear-flowing fountain of the sun. Cambyses died, after a reign of seven years, from a wound inflicted upon himself, with his own sword. The Egyptians ascribed his sudden death to the vengeance of the gods, for the desecration of their temples and their sanctuaries, especially for the slaughter of the sacred bull Apis, and for the ill-treatment of their priests.

§ 30. Meanwhile a rebellion had broken out in Susa, as a result of which one of the Magi, a pretended brother of the king, Cambyses, took possession of the throne. This false Smerdis was detected, after a few months, and put to death by seven noble Persians. Darius, who belonged to the royal race of Achæmenides, was called to the kingdom. The seven princes agreed (so the legend runs), that they would ride toward the rising sun, and he should be king whose horse was first to neigh. Darius,

*Darius Hystaspes*, son of Hystaspes, when he thus curiously obtained the throne, combined with an honorable descent, great sagacity, the firmness of a statesman, and the serious courage of a warrior. He was also a pious adherent of Zoroaster's religion; yet not an intolerant fanatic like Cambyses. The inscriptions on the rocky wall of Bagistan record how Darius fought long and earnestly against rebellious tribes, before he came into sure possession of his dominion, and before he could say "twenty provinces pay me tribute, and perform by day and by night whatever I command!" He governed his kingdom by satraps, regulated the payment of taxes, and carried on great wars, though he was not always victorious. For he waged war upon the Nomads of the Steppes, lying between the lower Danube and the Dnieper; people who called themselves Scolots, but were known to the Greeks as Scythians. As he approached, they withdrew, with their herds and their tents, and abandoned their barren fields to the enemy. The Persians soon came to the brink of destruction, for want of food, and, pursued by the Scythians, were compelled to make a difficult, and almost destructive, retreat across the Danube.

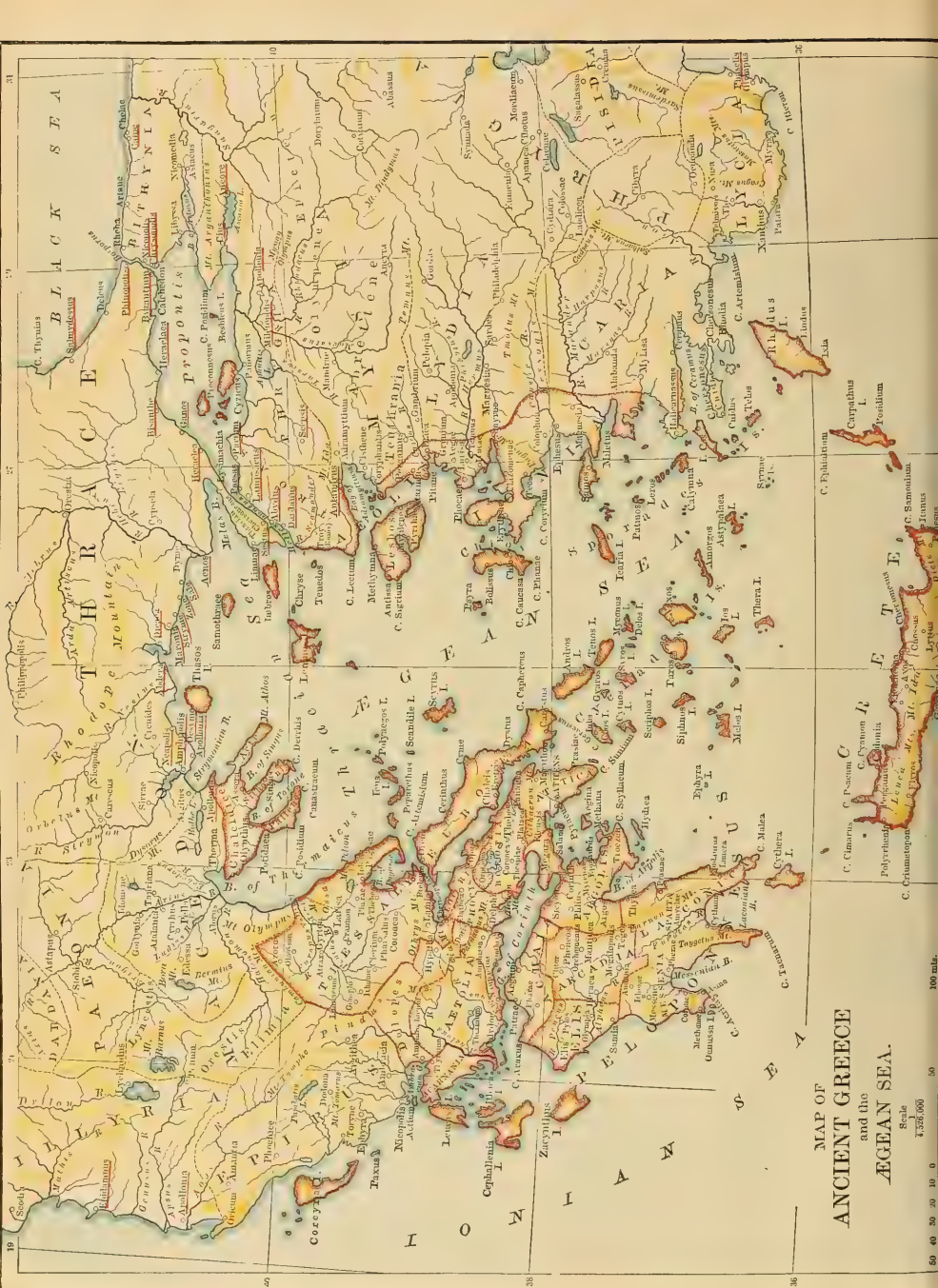
§ 31. The simple manners and the war-like virtues of the Persians soon degenerated. The splendid court, where crowds of courtiers and priestly counselors, of servants and satellites, consumed the marrow of the land, destroyed the well-being of the provinces. The royal table was provided with the most delicious meats and drinks, brought from the most distant regions; a throng of intriguing women, who often received the revenues of whole cities and districts for their adornment, increased the extravagance and the luxury of the court. This was held in the winter time at the warmer Babylon, in spring at Susa, and in summer at the cool Ecbatana, a city shaded with trees and abundant in fountains. Numerous parks and orchards served for the pleasure of the Persian king, at these changing residences. The Satraps of the provinces imitated the luxury and the extravagance of the royal court, to the destruction of their lands, which were protected by no laws, and no established rights, against their caprice and despotism. Moreover this vast Persian kingdom was only a cluster of heterogeneous elements, made up of people with all manner of customs and institutions, and without inward unity or force of cohesive attraction. Even in the army the different tribes preserved their national costumes, weapons and modes of war. Science and literature were unknown to the Persians, but in architecture and sculpture they were not behind the other peoples of the Orient, as is shown by the colossal ruins of Persepolis, with their columns, their marble stairways and walls adorned with statues.



AN EASTERN KHAN.







MAP OF  
ANCIENT GREECE  
and the  
AEGEAN SEA.  
Scale  
1:335,000

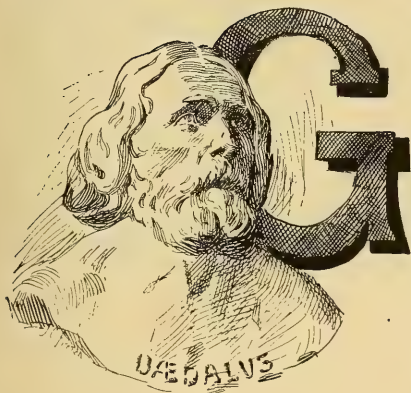


## B. THE GREEK WORLD.

### 1 GEOGRAPHY.

§ 32.

#### a. THE GREEK MAINLAND.



REECE forms the southern part of a large peninsula, which is in the north broad and coherent, in the south narrow, irregular and broken by frequent bays and inlets. Many mountain ranges intersect it so that it consists of a multitude of small secluded and separate regions, especially favorable to the development of independent communities. Greece is divided into North Greece, Middle Greece, and the Peloponnesus.

1. NORTH GREECE consists of the rugged mountain regions, Epirus and Thessaly. These are separated from each other from north to south by the

wild, serrated, snow-clad, rocky range of the Pindus. Thessaly is a land of rich and fertile plains lying between the spurs of the Pindus, especially adapted to the breeding of horses. The vale of Tempe close to the many-peaked Olympus, the mountain of the Gods, was renowned in antiquity for its natural beauty. Larissa on the Peneus, Pharsalia with its battlefield were noteworthy cities. The Oeta is the southern mountain chain; between its base and the sea runs a narrow gorge, which is the only natural entrance from Thessaly to Middle Greece. This is the famous Thermopylæ, the warm gateway, so called from the hot sulphur springs that gush from the mountain sides.

2. MIDDLE GREECE or HELLAS intersected by the arms of the Oeta consisted of eight small independent states.

*Attica*, a hilly region rich in olives, figs, and honey with its capital, Athens (founded by Theseus who united several independent towns into a single community). Piræus was the Athenian harbor, Eleusis the place of the mysteries and the worship



ELEUSINIAN FEAST. (H. Vogel.)

of Ceres, and Marathon its world famous battlefield. Opposite Athens lie the Islands *Ægina* and *Salamis*; the former renowned for its early culture and its commerce, the latter for the sea-fight in the Persian war. *Bœotia*, with the famous *Helicon*, the home of the muses, situated in a region rich in springs and picturesque beauty, is a fertile country famous for its seven-gated city *Thebes*, for its heroic *Platæa* and for the famous battlefields *Leuctra* and *Chæronea*. *Phocis*, with the famed *Parnassus*, a steep craggy mountain with majestic natural surroundings. At the foot of the mountain lay the holy city *Delphi*. This was supposed to be the centre (or the navel) of the world; here was the oracle of *Apollo* and here were numerous splendid buildings, and other works of art. The alternation of rocks, forests, grottos, brooks, of the barren mountain with the fruitful plains, made a powerful impression and filled the beholder with a feeling of religious awe. *Doris* and *Locris* have no historical value; *Ætolia* and *Acarnania* also had little relation to Greek life.

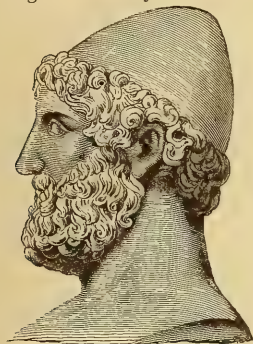
3. **PELOPONNESUS** (now *Morea*) is united to *Hellas* by a small and craggy isthmus. This peninsula, bounded by the sea on four sides, is all mountain land. Rugged *Arcadia*, with charming valleys, and fertile pastures was the home of a sturdy race of



herdsmen. Mantinea, Tegea and Megalopolis, planned by Epaminondas, were its principal cities. *Achaia* lay to the north of it on the Corinthian Gulf; its twelve cities united in the third century, B. C., to form the famous Achaian League. To this belonged also Sicyon and the rich and beautiful Coriuth. *Argolis* was in the east, a

rocky land with a coast abounding in bays. Argos, its capital, is famous as the home of Agamemnon; Mycenæ and Tirynth for the ruins of the Cyclopean walls of the "Lion Gate." *Laconia* or *Lacedæmon* lay south of Argolis; a rugged country with the Taygetus mountains and only a few fertile stretches of land in the valley of the Eurotas; not far away was the world-famous Sparta, a union of separate districts or enclosures which at one time numbered 60,000 inhabitants. *Messene*, the land of olive-trees, extended from Lacedæmon to the sea. Its ancient rocky capital Ithome, served in after years as the fortress of the new metropolis Messene, built at the suggestion of Epaminondas. Pylos was a Messenian city by the sea. *Elis* lay to the north; a fertile country with the plains and covered grove of Olympia, so renowned for the

Olympic games and for its glorious temples and works of art. Because of these games Elis stood under the sheltering peace of the gods and in centuries experienced no war.



PLUTO.

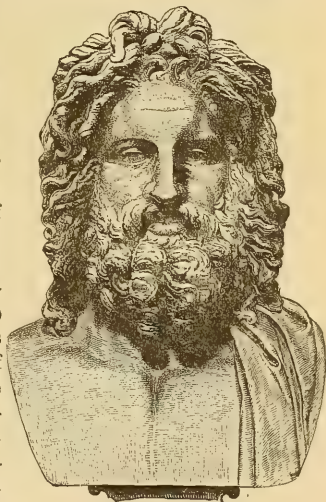
## b. THE GREEK ISLANDS.

§ 33. Westward and eastward of Greece lie a multitude of large and little islands, which are very important in Greek history.



DIDRACHM OF RHODES.

They were almost all distinguished for their products, wine, oil, and the fruits of the south; they carried on a large trade and early attained high culture. The most important are: in the west, *Coreyra* (now Corfu) famous once for its wealth and progress and its Corinthian colony, and stony *Ithaca*, the home of Odysseus. In the southern Mediterranean, the great island *Crete* renowned for its laws, its culture and its pirates. A hundred cities, says Homer, are probably in Crete. In *Cyprus* and *Cythera* the Phœnicians erected factories and workshops for dyed fabrics and castings, and worshiped their goddess, whom the Greeks called Aphrodite, and the Romans Venus, with obscene rites. They settled Rhodes also, an island rich in ores; their settlements the Greeks acquired, and here at the entrance of the harbor was erected the colossal bronze statue of the God of the Sun. The Archipelago of



JUPITER.

the Ægean sea abounded in islands large and small. *Eubœa* (Negroponte) on which were the cities Eretria and Chalcis, was opposite the east coast of Hellas. Further east are *Lemnos*, *Thasos*, *Imbros* and *Samothrace*, ancient and famous seats of religious mysteries. Near the east coast of Peloponnesus are the *Cyclades* or circle islands. *Delos* the sacred birth place of Apollo and Artemis (*Diana*) was the centre of these. *Paros*, was renowned for its marble, *Naxos*, for its wine. Off the coast of Asia Minor are, *Lesbos*, *Chios*, *Samos*, *Coos*, important for their wealth, their commerce, their culture as well as their size and fertility; and *Patmos*, noteworthy for its traditional connection with the Evangelist John.



JUNO (HERA). (*Ludovisi*.)

which gave birth to the Light, and the creative Eros; these were all self-subsistent deities. The Earth gave birth to the Sky and the Sea, and then produced a progeny of superhuman size and power, the Titans, who governed all things until a more intellectual race under the rule of Zeus (Jupiter) the God of the Sky conquered the heaven, assailing Titans and Giants and burying them in the abysses of the earth. Having tamed the savage forces of nature and the violence of the elements, Zeus established his throne upon Olympus, while Pluto (called also Hades) ruled the gloomy realms of Tartarus, and Poseidon, (Neptune) with his trident governed the stormy Sea. With them were worshiped Hera (or Juno) the queen of heaven, the Virgin Pallas Athene (Minerva) who with helm

## 2. GREEK RELIGIOUS LIFE.

§ 34. Polytheism was nowhere so cheerful as among the Greeks, whose legends of the gods (myths, whence mythology) were in later times adopted by the Romans and blended with the Old-Italian religious system. The Greeks pictured the beginning of the universe as a crude and formless mass. *Chaos*, out of which emerged the wide breasted Earth, the nether world (Tartarus), Night,



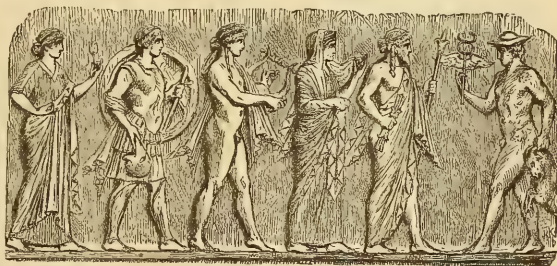
DIANA ARTEMIS.

and shield appears the protectress of all intellectual pursuits and useful inventions. the glorious Apollo, God of Light, who as leader of the nine muses watches over



SACRIFICING TO THE LARES AND PENATES. (*H. Vogel.*)

the fine arts, Artemis his sister (Diana) goddess of the moon and the chase. Aphrodite (Venus) the charming goddess of love, with her youthful son Eros (Amor, Cupid) and her companions, the three graces. Forest and mountains, fields and meadows, streams and lakes were alive with countless divine beings (Nymphs, Nereids, Tritons, the Hours, the goddesses of the seasons, and the Sirens with their bewitching songs.) These were corporeal forms of the mighty activities of nature and often interfered in human destiny. A race of heroes derived



RELIEF FROM GREEK ALTAR.



from Zeus was the connecting link between Gods and men; in like manner the gap between man and the other animals was filled up with Satyrs, Centaurs, Fauns, which possessed the attributes of man and beast commingled. From his birth-hour every



HERMES OF PRAXITELES.

human being was believed to be accompanied by his guardian and guiding genius (Dæmon) who influenced his desires and his actions, without however destroying the freedom of his will. The hearthstone was the seat of Hestia (Vesta) and of the house and family gods (Lares, Penates); these warded off evil from the household, while every important event was under the watch-care of a particular divinity. Christians teach that the earthly life is a time of trial and transition to a nobler existence, but the Greeks rejoiced in the pleasures of this earth and shuddered to think of the shadowy existence of the nether world. Like phantoms, souls descended into Hades, "mere clouds and glimmerings of life." Yet

they believed in future rewards and penalties and in eternal life. The departed were conducted by Hermes (Mercury) to the judges of the nether world, and as these decreed were they appointed to the abode of the righteous (Elysium, the blessed islands) or to the gloomy region of damnation (Tartarus, Orcus). To the souls or shadows (Manes) of the dead, the surviving relatives and friends brought many sacrifices to offer at their graves.

Dionysius (Bacchus) was a very ancient deity of profound, mystic significance. His worship originated in Bœotia, but his rites spread through Lower Italy, the islands of the Ægean Sea and Asia. He signifies the force of nature which ripens the vine and gives the intoxicating power to the grape. He is generally considered as the God of Winter, or the representation of the abundance of Nature given in wine. The worship of Dionysius gave rise to many wild and noisy festivals (Bacchanalia). In Delphi the rites were celebrated in winter; in them the women assembled as Bacchæ and rioted around Parnassus. The customary processions and mummeries of the Feast of Vintage were the origin of the dramatic plays, tragedies and comedies.

This world of Gods, so rich in beauty and in freedom is represented in the finest productions of Greek art and poetry.

## I. GREECE BEFORE THE PERSIAN WARS.

## 1. THE TIME OF THE TROJAN WAR.

§ 35.



THE Pelasgi are said to be the oldest inhabitants of Greece. They were an agricultural peaceable people with a religion based upon the worship of nature, in which the earth-mother Demeter (Ceres), the God of Vegetation and of wine, Dionysos (Bacchus) and the oracle-giving nature-God Zeus were worshiped splendidly in the forest sanctuary at

Dodona in Epirus. This religion of nature—as well as the ruins of ancient buildings, cities, treasure-houses, royal castles, (particularly the indestructible cyclopean walls in the Peloponnesus consisting of polygonal stone masses piled up and held together without cement) indicate that the Pelasgi resembled the Orientals in their culture and religious institutions, and that there used to



BACCHUS.

be in very early times intercourse between Greece and Asia and Egypt. This view is confirmed by the legends of oriental colonists who in hoary antiquity came to Greece and scattered the seeds of culture. For example the Egyptian Cecrops in Attica (Athens) the Phœnician Cadmus in Boeotia (Thebes) the Phrygian Pelops in the Peninsula that bears his name, (Pelop's island) Peloponnesus.

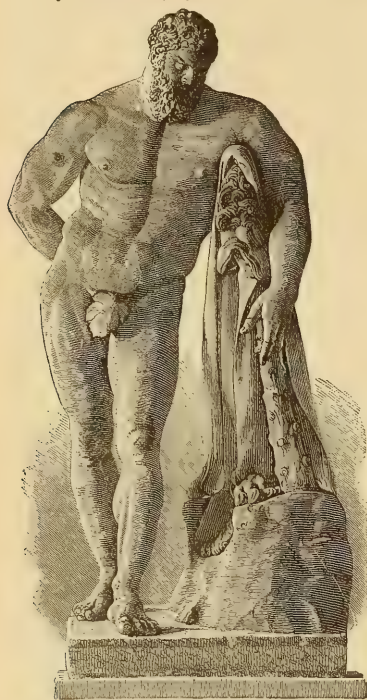
§ 36. The Pelasgi were forced out or subjugated by the courageous Hellenes who gradually conquered all Greece. These were of the same family with the Pelasgi and consisted of three branches: The Dorians (in Peloponnesus), the

THE ARGONAUTS. (Rahl.)



Ionians (in Attica and the islands) and the Æolians (in Bœotia and elsewhere). They distinguished themselves early by their deeds of war, their building of cities, and planting of colonies. The poetic legends of the Twelve Labors of Hercules (Herakles), of the voyage of the first Athenian hero Theseus, to Crete the mistress of the sea, where, with the help of the princess Ariadne, he found his way to the man-devouring Minotaur and delivered Athens from her shameful tribute, and of the daring voyage of the Argonauts, are echoes of the earliest achievements of Hellenic history. The voyage of the Argonauts, was undertaken by the Thessalian Jason,

along with the most famous heroes of his time, Hercules, Theseus, Castor and Pollux of Lacedæmon, and Orpheus, the Thracian singer. These started on the ship Argo for the unknown land of the sun (in later times said to be Colchis on the Black Sea) in order to fetch the golden fleece, which long years before had been hung up there by the Thessalian prince Phrixus, and which was guarded by a sleepless dragon. Phrixus and his sister Helle had a wicked stepmother, who sought the life of both children. Suddenly appeared to them, their deceased mother, the cloud-goddess Nephele, who gave them the wonderful ram, to carry them across the sea. Helle fell off at the Hellespont and drowned. But Phrixus reached the mainland, sacrificed the ram and spent his life in the land of the Sun. This precious fleece was now to be carried to Thessaly. After a toilsome voyage Jason with his comrades reached the golden Colchis and with the help of the sorceress Medea, the princess of the land, accomplished his undertaking and returned with his booty. But on their return voyage through the ocean and the mysterious river Eridanus the Argonauts had wonderful adventures and hair-breadth escapes. This narrative indicates early commercial relations of the Æolian race with



THE FARNESE HERCULES.

the distant coast of Asia. The further the Greek sailors voyaged, the richer became the legend, the farther east receded the goal of the Argonaut crew. Another legend "the War of the Seven against Thebes" contains quite probably also a basis of historic happenings.

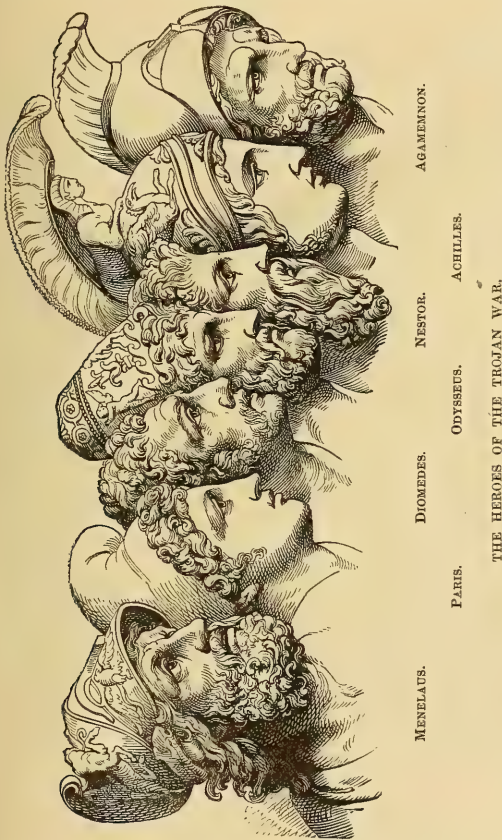
§ 37. The most important event of the Greek heroic epoch is the celebrated Trojan

**B. C. 1194-1198.** War. In Ilium or Troy, on the northwest coast of Asia Minor, King Priam ruled over a rich and cultured people. His youngest son Paris carried off the beautiful Helen, wife of the Lacedæmonian king Menelaus, who had received him hospita-



bly in his palace rich in silver and in gold. The injured husband gathered the Grecian princes for a war of revenge, which was conducted by his brother Agamemnon of Mycenæ, with the help of the most renowned heroes of Greece. Achilles and his friend Patroclus from Thessaly; the cunning Odysseus (Ulysses) from the island Ithaca; Diomedes from Argos; the aged Nestor from Pylos; Ajax and others are named in the legend as the chief participants in the war and the bravest chieftains of the

Greeks. Aulis, where Agamemnon sacrificed his daughter Iphigenia to Artemis (Diana), was the starting point of the great fleet that sailed away to the coast of Asia. But the Trojans proved to be such brave antagonists, especially Hector, the son of Priam, and the Trojan prince Æneas, that only after ten years of fighting, in which the gods themselves took part, could the city be taken and destroyed; and then only through the cunning trick of Odysseus (a wooden horse filled with armed men). Priam and most of the Trojans lost their lives in the defence or in the destruction of the city; the few survivors were carried into slavery. But the victors also suffered many misfortunes. Achilles, Patroclus and others found in Ilium an early grave. Agamemnon after a wearisome voyage home was murdered at the instigation of his faithless wife Clytemnestra, and Odysseus wandered, driven by storms, for ten years, along inhospitable shores, around islands and on



the sea, before he was permitted to see his faithful wife Penelope, and his son Telemachus, and to clear his house of the insolent wooers who sought the hand of his wife and meanwhile consumed his property.

§ 38. HOMER. The Trojan War is of more importance to poetry and art than to history, since the combats of the heroes, and their adventures and wanderings on

their return home, formed two legendary cycles, from which the materials of heroic or epic poetry have usually been selected.

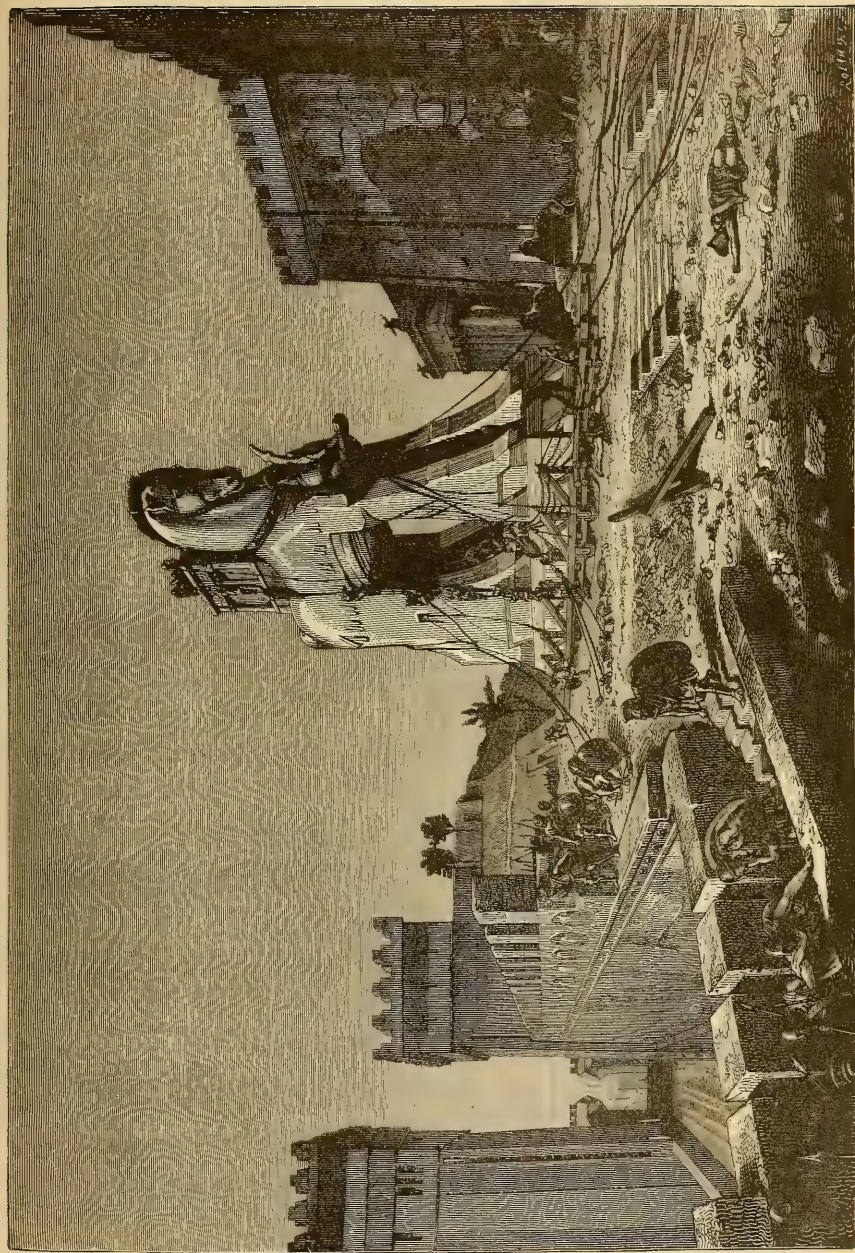
The first and greatest poet to combine these old myths into an immortal work. *Homer, about* was Homer, according to tradition, a blind singer, whose life is so obscure that, even in antiquity, seven cities strove for the honor of his birth-place. The two great poems ascribed to him, are the *Iliad*, in which the "Wrath of Achilles" or the battles before Troy, during fifty-one or fifty-three days



IPHIGENIA LED TO DIANA'S ALTAR AS A SACRIFICE.

of the last year of the war, are portrayed: and the *Odyssey*, in which are related the fates and adventures of Odysseus, and his companions, in the western sea and about Sicily. And even a burlesque epic, in which the battles of mice and frogs were represented in the same fashion, as the battles of the Achæans and the Trojans, was frequently ascribed, in ancient times, to the Ionic bard, although written four centuries later. In Homer's time, writing was unknown in Greece. These poems, therefore, were handed down by itinerant singers (Rhapsodists) who learned fragments of them by heart, and recited them to a listening throng. And even later, after these frag-





THE WOODEN HORSE. (H. Molle.)



ments had been collected and written down, the young men of Greece committed them to memory as an inspiration to patriotism, to religious sentiment and knowledge, and to a love of beauty. Wandering poets called Homerides recited parts of these poems at the great festivals of the Greeks, introducing them with invocations to their gods, with lyric song, accompanied by music (Homeric

*Hesiod, about Hymns*). Hesiod was the head of an

*B. C. 850.*

Æolian school of poets who flourished in Bœotia. He composed an epic poem upon the creation of the world, and the origin and fate of the Greek gods; and a didactic poem, "Works and Days," a golden treasury for the sensible citizen, full of maxims for the farm and for navigation, for home and civil life. The verse used by Homer was the hexameter, which continued to be the verse for epic poetry.



HOMER. (*Sans Souci, Potsdam.*)

§ 39. Soon after the Trojan War, great changes and revolutions took place in Greece. Some of the Hellenic tribes pushed the earlier inhabitants from their settlements. These threw themselves upon the others, until at last, the weaker tribe that escaped slavery determined to emigrate, and to found plantations on the opposite

*B. C. 1104.*

coast. The most successful of these emigrations was that of the Dorians into the Peloponnesus, under the leadership of the descendants of Hercules. This changed entirely the character of the Peloponnesus, as the control of the peninsula passed away from the Æolian and Achaian population into the hands of the rude Dorians. Only the northern district, Achaia, and the middle mountain region, Arcadia,

ΕΖΗΛΘΕΝ ΔΕ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣΣΟΔΩΜΩΝ ΕΙΣΥΝΑΝ  
ΤΗΣΙΝ ΑΥΤΩ ΜΕΤΑ ΤΟΥΤΟ ΣΤΡΕΨΑΙ ΑΥΤΟΝ  
ΑΠΟ ΤΗΣ ΚΟΤΤΗΣ ΤΟΥ ΧΟΔΑΛΛΟΤΟΜΟΡΚΑΙ  
ΤΩΝ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ ΤΩΝ ΜΕΤΑΥΤΟΥ ΕΙΣ ΤΗΝ  
ΚΟΙΛΑΔΑ ΤΗΝΣΑΥΗ· ΤΟΥΤΟ ΗΝ ΤΟ ΠΕΔΙΟΝ  
ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ· ΚΑΙ ΜΕΛΧΙΣ ΕΔΕΚΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣ  
ΣΑΛΗ ΜΕΖΗΝ ΕΓΚΕΝΑΡΤΟΥΣ ΚΑΙ ΟΙΝΟΝ ΗΝ  
ΔΕΙ ΕΡΕΥΣΤΟ ΥΘΥ ΤΟΥ ΨΥΣΤΟΥ· ΚΑΙ ΕΥΛΟΓΗ  
ΣΕΝ ΤΟΝ ΑΒΡΑΜ ΚΑΙ ΕΙΠΤΕΝ· ΕΥΛΟΓΗΜΕΝΟΣ

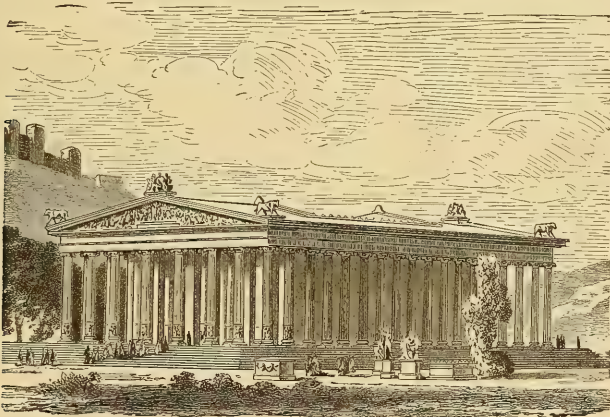
EARLY GREEK WRITING.

retained their old inhabitants. The Dorians gradually conquered Argolis, Laconica, Messene, Sicyon, Corinth, and Megara. They even invaded Attica, and threatened Athens; but were compelled to retreat, by the bravery and sacrificial

*Codrus*, death of the Athenian king, Codrus. An oracle had declared that victory would fall to the side whose king was slain. The Dorians forbade their warriors to attack Codrus. But the Athenian king, who had also heard the oracle, exchanged his royal garment for a shepherd's dress, and glided unrecognized into the enemy's camp, where he immediately provoked a conflict, and found the death that he sought. The Dorians, despairing of victory, at once abandoned Athens, and satisfied themselves with Megara. The Athenians declared that no one was worthy to wear the crown, after such a kingly hero, and accordingly abolished the royal dignity. The former inhabitants of the Peloponnesus had various fortunes. The bravest and strongest of them founded the Ionic colonies on the west coast of Asia Minor, and on the islands Chios, Lesbos and Samos. These were soon so renowned for the fertility of their soil, for their commerce, their industry, and their skill in navigation; for their prosperity and their culture, that they even eclipsed the mother country. Others remained at home and submitted voluntarily to the Dorians, paying them tribute and excluded from every share in the government of the state, although they were permitted to retain their personal freedom and their property. And a third class were compelled to submit by force of arms, and reduced to serfdom and slavery. The former were called, in Laconica, *Periœci* (countrymen, or Lacedæ-



COIN OF EPHEBUS.



THE TEMPLE OF DIANA AT EPHEBUS. (Restored.)

monians), to distinguish them from the Spartans. The latter were called Helots. In the other states, in Argos, Corinth and Sicyon, the noble families of the Achæians were admitted to equal political rights with the Dorians.

§ 40. Colonies. The Ionian colonies formed, after a time, a confederacy of twelve cities: of which the most important were Miletus, Ephesus, with the famous temple of Artemis (Diana), Phocæa, Colophon, and the Æolian Smyrna. They had representative councils, and festival assemblies, at the temple of Poseidon, on the promon-

tory of Mycale. The twelve Æolian cities, north of Ionia, and the six Dorian cities to the south, together with the island Rhodes, had similar religious communities, and annual meetings, but each city was an independent community, with its own laws and magistracy.

Halicarnassus, the birth-place of the historian Herodotus, was the most important city planted by the Dorians. In the course of time, the colonies and the mother country sent emigrants to the shores of the Hellespont, and of Propontus (Sea of Marmora), and of the Euxine (the Black Sea). The most important of these were Cyzicus, Byzantium (Constantinople), at the golden horn, Sinope, and Cerasus the land of cherries. There were flourishing colonies, also, on the coast of Thrace and Macedonia, Amphipolis, Olynthia, Abdera. And the number of Greek settlements in Lower Italy was so great that the inhabitants spoke Greek, and the whole country was



THE PYTHIA ON THE TRIPOD.

called Magna Græcia. Among these the most famous were the Spartan trading city Tarentum, the strong Crotona, and the ancient Cumæ, the mother city of Naples. The charming island of Sicily belonged, for the most part, to the Greeks, who founded there, many rich cities, of which the greatest, most powerful, and most cultivated, was the commercial city of Syracuse, a Corinthian settlement. Opposite Rhegium, the city of Messina was founded, at the foot of Mt. Ætna. The Ionian cities of Catena, Gela, and Agrigentum, were also Greek. Cyrene rivaled Carthage on the North coast of Africa, and Massilia, in South Gaul, was a nursery of culture, and a model of civil order, for the rough tribes of the vicinity. All these cities carried on a great commerce, from the products of their land, and the fabrics of their art. The surrounding country was beautifully cultivated, and adorned for miles with villas and with parks. They exercised beneficial influence upon the conduct and culture of the natives, but



gradually degenerated, because their great wealth and culture developed luxury, sensuality and sloth. The colonies maintained friendly relations with the mother state, by which they were planted, but were free and independent: they retained the manners, ordinances and religious usages of their forefathers, and revered them with filial piety.

## 2. THE TIME OF THE LAW-GIVERS AND SAGES.

### a. *Hellenic Life.*

§ 41. Greece never formed a single state, but was divided into a multitude of independent communities. From time to time the mightiest of these obtained the over-



OLYMPIAN GAMES.

lordship (Hegemony). For instance Sparta, Athens, Thebes. But language, manners, and religious institutions united all the Greek tribes into one people. They called themselves Hellenes, and all other races Barbarians. They were a talented people, capable of great development, remarkable for their beauty of face and of form. and they reached a height of culture to which no other people has yet attained. Their love of freedom, and their manly energy, led them to found many independent communities, to which they were attached with devoted patriotism, and which they defended with their heart's blood, until party spirit strangled their nobler feelings and their love of unity. Activity and industry developed a universal prosperity; and a beautiful country, under a cheerful sky, with a healthy, happy climate, filled them

with the love of life, and an indestructible vivacity. They needed little, and their fertile soil, and favorably situated land, gave it to them without great effort; they had few cares and sorrows, and every free man had leisure enough for intellectual enjoyments, for poetry, art, and science. The ordinary employments, required by the necessities of life, were avoided by the Greeks, as fit only for slaves and strangers. Their notions of rights were exceedingly strict; according to these, only the citizen of the state could share in the protection of the laws, and exile was regarded by them as a punishment equal to death. Yet their religious maxims awakened and nourished in them the feelings of fraternity and humanity. The sacred bond of hospitality united cities, families, and individuals. Pious awe protected the suppliant, when he was oppressed by a fatal consciousness of guilt. The herald was looked upon as holy and inviolate, even in the midst of battle. In Athens there was an altar in the market place, sacred to Sympathy; and she had a home also in the hearts of the people.

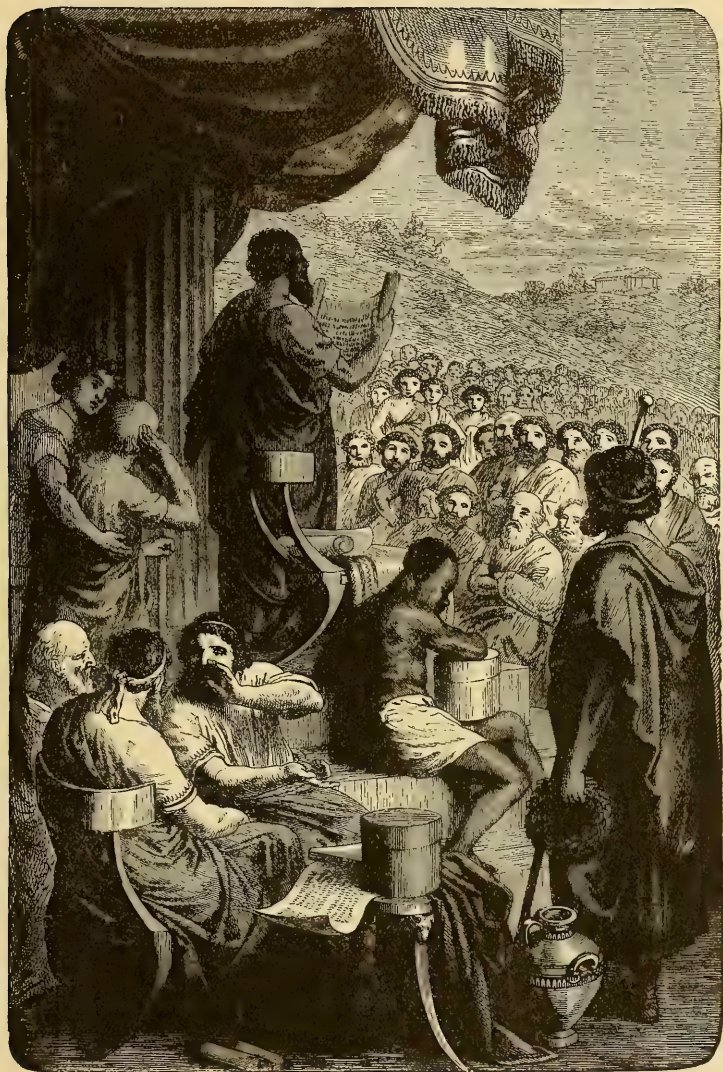
§ 42. Certain institutions connected with religion were common to all, or to



THE WRESTLERS. (Florenz.)

several Greek tribes. The most important of these was the Amphictyonic council, or temple-union; a court of arbitration composed of delegates from twelve Greek states, whose duty it was to protect the national sanctuary in Delphi, and to prevent the wars between the different states from becoming too cruel and destructive. It was a union of cities and of states, upon a religious foundation, the like of which existed also in other parts of the Greek world. Next came the Delphic oracle, with its rich temple. This was a community of priests, which restrained violence, by the

power of humanity, and brought all the activities of public life under the influence of religion and morality. In every important undertaking, especially at the planting of new colonies, the Delphic Apollo was consulted. The ambassadors first sacrificed at the navel stone, after which the laurel-crowned priestess Pythia ascended the golden tripod, placed above the abyss in the dark chamber of the temple. The vapor that ascended soon wrought her into ecstasy, during which she uttered words that were written down and handed to the ambassadors, for their interpretation. These oracles were obscure, and frequently ambiguous and enigmatical. The temple at Delphi possessed great estates; numerous tenants paid tribute to the priests, who were also enriched by sacrificial offerings, and votive gifts. The third bond that held together the Greek states and tribes were the games, musical and athletic contests, that took



HERODOTUS READING HIS HISTORY. (*H. Leutemann.*) (pp. 91.)



place periodically at famous sanctuaries, in connection with sacrificial service. The Pythian games were dedicated to Apollo, and took place at Delphi: the Isthmian games to Poseidon, in the pine forests of the Isthmus: the Nemean were dedicated to Zeus, and took place at Nemea near the Peloponnesian city Cleonae. But the Olympian games were the most famous of all. These took place every four years, in the plains of Olympia in Elis, and during their continuance, in the sacred months of the Summer time, there reigned "the peace of the gods." They consisted especially in running, wrestling, fighting, throwing the diskos or spear, and in chariot racing. The olive branch which was given to the victor, was not only an honor for the recipient, but for his family and his native city. The works of artists, poets, and authors were first published at these national festivals. It is related that Herodotus, the father of history, read parts of his work at a great sacrificial celebration, and inspired the greatest of all historians, Thucydides, to a glorious emulation.



OLYMPIAN VICTOR, PRIEST AND KING.

The temple of Olympian Zeus, and the colossal statue of the king of the gods, both works of the Athenian artist Phidias, belong to the most wonderful achievements of Greek art. Zeus is represented in a sitting posture, and the statue was beautiful with gold and ivory. A victory in an Olympic game was the greatest distinction in all Greece. The returning victor was brought home in a festal procession, and conducted to the temple of the protecting deity amid the songs of victory, which were composed by the best known poets, like Simonides and Pindar. And in the temple the happy event was celebrated with a thank offering, and a joyful banquet. The Greek calendar was reckoned by Olympiads, and thus we discover that 776 B. C., marks the beginnings of the Olympic festivals and games.

*b. Lycurgus, Law-Giver of the Spartans (about B. C. 884).*

§ 43. The manners of the Dorians gradually degenerated in their new home. An unwarlike spirit threatened to prevail, and the hatred between victors and vanquished troubled their peace, and brought confusion into their state. This induced a patriotic

**B. C. 886.** Spartan of royal blood, Lycurgus, to restore and reestablish the old Doric maxims, and thereby to pacify his own people, and at the same time to make them superior to the other states. He made a journey therefore to the island Crete, distinguished for its good laws. For the Doric inhabitants of the island had preserved their original customs and institutions. After making himself acquainted with the state of things among the Cretans, he returned to Sparta and established the remarkable constitution and manner of life which in the course of time assumed the following form.

*a. The Constitution of the State.*

All authority was in the hands of the Dorians, who devoted themselves exclusively to the use of arms, to war and to governing the state.

In the popular assemblies they chose the council of the ancients (*Gerousia*), who were charged with the executive and the judicial authority, and also the five Ephors, who at first watched over the order of the city, but subsequently had the supervision of public life, and the conduct of officers, and acquired such power that they even called the kings to account. The Council of Ancients consisted of twenty-eight citizens, who must be at least sixty years old. This was presided over by two Spartan kings, who belonged to the family of the *Heraclidæ* and received their dignity by inheritance. They possessed less power than honor at home, but in war were always leaders, and unlimited in their authority. This dual monarchy suggests the inference that the old Achaian inhabitants united with the newly arrived Dorians in a common government. The whole constitution was based upon an equality of property. All

the land of Laconica was divided, so that the nine thousand Spartan families received nine thousand indivisible estates or farms, which passed always to the oldest son. The thirty thousand families of *Periœci* were provided likewise with estates of smaller extent. The *Helots*, however, had no landed property. They must till the land of the Dorians as serfs, and deliver to their masters a fixed portion of the crop in grain, wine, oil and the like. Savage and defiant as they were, the *Helots* bore the yoke of slavery with great repugnance, and were always ready to rebel against their lords. Hence it was permitted to the Spartan youth, in order that they might acquire cunning and skill, and contribute to the safety of the land, to murder any *Helots* suspected of rebellious purposes, thus preventing their increasing number from becoming dangerous. In threatening times the *Helots* were impressed into military service and, if they distinguished themselves, rewarded with a limited right of citizenship.

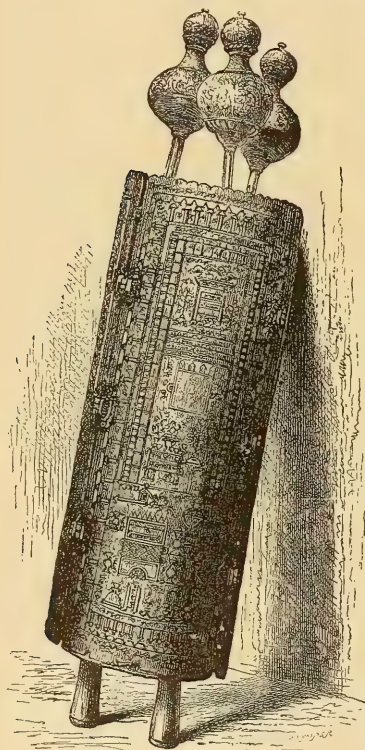


HELOTS.

*b. Manner of Life.*

In order that the Dorians might preserve the rights that they acquired at birth, the state took charge of the physical and intellectual education of the young. Weak or crippled children were exposed, immediately after birth, in a ravine of the *Taygetus* (which means probably that they were abandoned to the *Periœci*). The healthy children were taken from home, when they reached their sixth year, to be educated by the state. The body was trained to great endurance, and the mind to a belief in Spartan law and Spartan greatness. The laws and moral maxims of the state were learned

by heart, and gymnastic exercises were constantly enforced. The Spartan was no less famous for his cunning and astuteness than for the pithy brevity of his speech, which was distinguished by the word "Laconic." But his feelings and imagination were not excited. Science and eloquence were neither treasured or encouraged; but the serious Doric poetry, united with the dance, and with music, served to awaken and to keep alive the love of country and the love of war. Even Doric art, especially architecture, was distinguished for its energy and majestic simplicity, rather than for



ANCIENT LAW SCROLL.

the beauty and the grace that marked the Ionic buildings. The men were divided, according to their age, into table companies (Syssitia); as a rule fifteen united voluntarily at a single table. Their meals were extremely simple, and each of the company contributed to the expense; but the royal table was supported by the state. The so-called black blood soup, and a beaker of wine, made up the dinner; for dessert they had cheese, figs, and olives. The king sat at the head of the table and received a double portion, so that he might entertain a guest. Luxury of every sort was avoided. Their houses were rude and without comfort, and only the ax and the saw were used in their construction. Money coined of precious metal was excluded from the state, so that no one should have the means wherewith to purchase unnecessary pleasures; rough iron coins served in daily life as a medium of exchange. And in order that no Spartan should accustom himself to foreign delights, they were forbidden to travel, and foreigners were not permitted to stay any length of time in Sparta. Hunting and the exercise of arms were the chief employments of the adult Spartan. The cultivation of the soil was given over to the Helots; trade and industry to the Periceci. The entire life of the Spartan was directed to war. In the city, he lived as in camp, and the time of

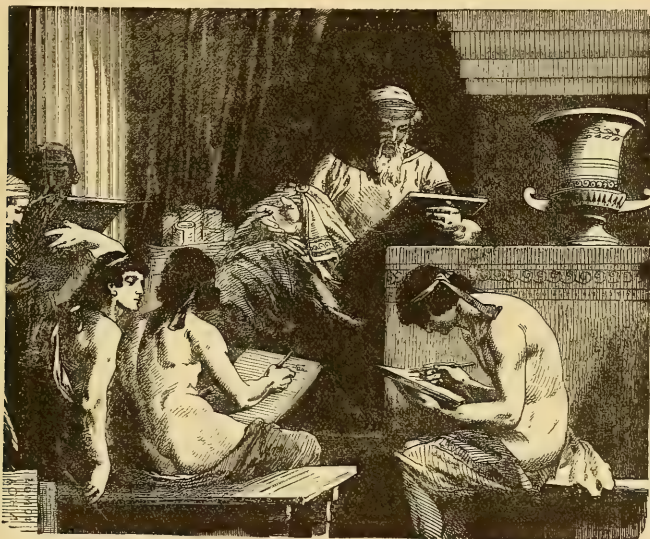
war was for him a time of festival and joy. Clad in their purple mantles, the long-haired Spartans marched to the field, to the sound of the flute, and adorned themselves before the battle as though going to a festival. The strength of their army was in their heavy-armed infantry (Hoplites), which consisted of many subdivisions; and could execute, without confusion, many movements and manœuvres. The members of the same table stood beside each other in battle, united in death as in life. The Spartan ranks never yielded or wavered; the Spartan conquered or he fell



with his face to the foe. Strict obedience, and the subordination of the younger to the elder, was the soul of the military education and institutions of Sparta. Indeed the city itself was a temple of honor for old age.

§ 44. These laws, termed "rhetria" by their author, were confirmed by the Delphic oracle. Thereupon, Lycurgus made the Spartans swear that they would alter nothing in them, until he returned from the journey that he was about to make. He then traveled to Crete and never returned. The consequences of his laws appeared immediately. The disciplined Spartans overcame, not only their neighbors the Messenians, with whom they had two long wars, but they acquired, in a short time, the overlord-

**First Messenian** ship of the whole Peloponnesus. They forced the Messenians to pay  
**War, B. C.** tribute, after they had reduced their strong castle Ithome, and after  
**730-710.** the Messenian hero Aristodemus had, in his despair, stabbed himself



SOLON DICTATING HIS LAWS. (*H. Vogel.*)

at the grave of the daughter, whom he had sacrificed in vain to the gods. But the

**Second Messenian** severity and the scorn of the Spartans soon provoked the Messenians

**War, B. C.** to a second war. Aristomenes their leader by his bravery and his

**670-630.** cunning was at first successful, and the Spartans sued for peace. But

the Dorian poet, Tyrtaeus, whom they brought from Athens, freed them from their despondency; with his war songs he kindled afresh their national pride, their sense of honor and their manhood, and with his ordinances he renewed their discipline and their reverence for the old Doric maxims and authority. The Spartans renewed the fight, overcame their enemy, taking Aristomenes prisoner. A part of the Messenians emi-

grated to the island of Sicily, the others were reduced to slavery. Sparta now possessed control of the peninsula, and only once was their overlordship threatened. King Phido, of Argos, of the eighth, or possibly of the seventh century before Christ, united the northeast states of the Peloponnesus and the island Ægina, and arrayed them as a rival against the city on the Eurotas river.

*c. Solon the Lawgiver of the Athenians. (600 B. C.)*

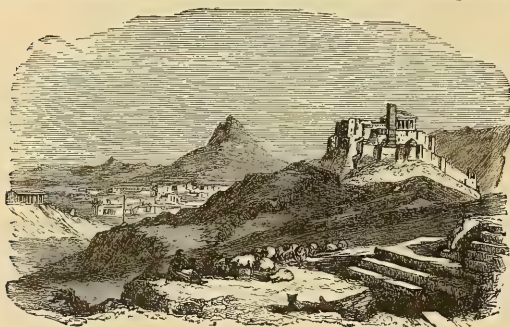
§ 45. After the glorious death of Codrus, the royal dignity was abolished and an archon appointed, who performed the royal functions during his life-time, but without the royal title and rank. He was chosen by the chiefs of the noble families (Eupatridæ),

**B. C. 1068.** who constituted his council of state. At first only members of the family of Codrus were eligible to this office, but gradually Athens became an aristocratic community, in which the office of archon was opened to all of

**B. C. 754.** the noble families, the term of service being fixed at ten years. And finally nine archons were chosen annually, in order that as many as possible might share

**B. C. 683.** in the honor. These archons presided over the government of the city, the religious

affairs, the army and navy, the making of laws, and the administration of justice. The nobility having acquired all the power of the state, excluded the common citizens (Demos), from all participation in executive or judicial functions; and, as the laws were unwritten, there was no lack of caprice, partiality, and injustice. This induced the citizens in their assembly to demand a written code of laws: the nobility refused



AREOPAGUS.

for a long time to accede to the desires of the people, but when finally compelled to abandon their opposition, they entrusted one of their number, the severe Draco, with

**Draco, About** the composition of the laws; and he made them so severe that they

**B. C. 626.** were said to be written in blood. Every offence was punished with death; extenuating circumstances were not considered; fear and terror seemed to him the only means of improvement and of obedience. But the discontented people were not to be brought again into bondage. Bitter struggles ensued; and party feeling became so strong that the state was brought to the verge of destruction. At this

**Solon, B. C. 594.** juncture Solon, one of the seven wise men, who was greatly revered as a poet and the friend of the people, became the savior of his country. He divided the Attic people, according to the income of their land, into four classes, and framed a new republican constitution, according to which the assembly of the people possessed the supreme authority, the power to pass laws, to choose magistrates and judges, and to name the council of four hundred. But that the nobility might not forfeit their power entirely, certain privileges were accorded to them and to land-owners of the

first class. They alone could be elected archons, and these archons, if they performed the duties of their office satisfactorily, constituted the court of Areopagus, which Solon made the guardian of the laws, of the constitution, and of the public morals. This council, which held its session on Mars Hill, consisted of the most important citizens: it supervised the education of the young and the conduct of the inhabitants, to the end that morality and discipline might be preserved, and luxury, ostentation, and sensuality be kept away. Along with this new constitution, Solon established the so-called relief law (*Seisachthia*). This remitted to the poorer citizens a part of their debts, abolished personal bondage in payment of debt, and relieved the smaller farms from their mortgages. Solon, like the Spartan Lycurgus, made his fellow-citizens swear to alter nothing in his laws until he returned from his journey: but he fixed the period of his journey at ten years. He then set out for Egypt and Asia, but returned again to his native city, and, in his old age, he still sought by earnest poems to keep the people in the way of virtue, of justice, and of freedom.

#### d. *The Tyrants.*

§ 46. In the beginning, all the Greek states were ruled by kings, who possessed a patriarchal authority as high priests, judges, and generals. But gradually the noble and rich families, who were at first only members of the king's council, acquired the upper hand, and used some favorable opportunity to get rid of the kings, and to found an aristocratic republic, in which they themselves conducted the government. This soon became, for the people (*Demos*), very oppressive. But as the nobility alone bore arms, and were practiced in war, it was difficult to deprive them of their power. This happened only when some ambitious noble separated himself from his companions, and became a leader of the people. Nevertheless, democracy did not immediately supplant aristocracy, but the popular leaders (*demagogues*) obtained, in most states, sole personal authority. They were termed tyrants, by which we are to understand, not arbitrary princes, but the sole rulers of a community, in distinction from the *asymetes*, who were sometimes clothed with extraordinary authority in critical situations, by the joint act of the council and of the people. Several of these tyrants possessed great gifts as statesmen, and conducted splendid administrations. To satisfy the people, to whom they were indebted for their elevation, they erected magnificent buildings and encouraged navigation, commerce, and colonization. Their wealth enabled them to surround themselves with artists and poets, and to give the people great religious festivals. Their splendid courts contributed to the welfare of the cities. But the dominion of the tyrants did not last. The noble families sought in every way to overthrow them, and were supported by the Spartans, who every where promoted aristocratic institutions. Moreover, the sons



EGYPTIAN KING AND COURTIER.



of the tyrants often forgot their indebtedness to the people, and by their cruelty and despotism, precipitated their own downfall.

§ 47. The most famous tyrants were Periander of Corinth, Polycrates of Samos, and Pisistratus of Athens. The two first are known to us in poetic

**B. C. 600.** legend. Periander, a sagacious prince, who elevated his native city to the first rank in commerce, and encouraged art and poesy, had for his friend the bard



ATHENIA PARTHENOS. (Copy of Phidias' Minerva.)

And so it happened. For Polycrates was enticed by the Persian satrap to Magnesia, in Asia Minor, and there nailed to the cross.

But the tyrant most renowned was Pisistratus, who was able, even in the life time

**Pisistratus.** of Solon, to make himself sole ruler of the city. He wounded himself,

**B. C. 560.** and then pretended that assassins sought his life, and asked the people

and musician, Arion of Lesbos, who lived a long time at Corinth, and celebrated the sacrificial festivals of the isthmus, in his enthusiastic choral songs. Arion journeyed through Italy and Sicily, giving displays of his art, and acquiring great wealth, and then set out for Corinth. The sailors, eager for his wealth, determined to cast him into the sea. Arion offered them all his treasures as the price of his life, but they, afraid of Periander's wrath, determined to stand to their purpose. Seeing that every chance of safety had vanished, Arion began to sing and to play, and then sprang, in his singer's robe, into the waves. But the melodies which he sang had so charmed the dolphins, that one of them carried the singer on his back to the shore. Arion hastened to Periander, who arrested the guilty

**Polycrates,** sailors, and punished them with exile.

**B. C. 550.** The ring of Polycrates is a legend no less famous. The rich and mighty ruler of Samos, who with his soldiers and sailors, oppressed the noble races of the beautiful island, and who united oriental splendor with Hellenic art at his brilliant court, succeeded in everything that he undertook. His friend, King Amasis of Egypt, was anxious lest he bring down upon him the envy of the gods, and wrote to him to sacrifice the dearest that he had, in order to reconcile the heavenly powers. Thereupon Polycrates cast a precious and finely wrought ring, that he held most dear, into the sea. The Gods, however, scorned his sacrifice, for in a few days a fisherman brought a great fish that he had captured as a present to the ruler, and when the fish was opened they found the ring in its entrails. When Amasis heard this he feared that

Polycrates would come to ill fortune, and refused further relations with him, that he might not be com-

for a body guard of fifty men, and for the possession of the castle. And although his enemies succeeded in driving him twice from the city, he came back each time. The first time by an agreement with Megacles, who pretended that the goddess Pallas Athene brought him back to the city. The second time by a victorious battle in the open field. He revenged himself upon his enemies by exiling many of them, and by

**B. C. 527.** oppressive taxation. And at his death left the dominion to his son Hippias and Hipparchus. Pisistratus, and Hippias also at first, governed with great renown. Agriculture, industrial art, and commerce greatly prospered. The poems of Homer, which had hitherto existed only in the memories of the rhapsodists, were now committed to writing. Artists of all kinds found generous patrons. The city was adorned with temples and public buildings, and the poet Anacreon lived at the court of Hippias. But when Hipparchus, a sensual and dissolute man, was murdered at the Pan-Atheneaic festival by two Athenians, Harmodius and Aristogiton, in revenge for an insult, Hippias gave free course to his violent nature. His cruelty and severity alienated the people from him, and gave to the Alcæonidae an opportunity to return from their exile, and, with the help of the Spartans, to expel the tyrant. When his children had fallen into

**B. C. 510.** the hands of his enemies, Hippias capitulated, surrendered the castle and fled to Asia Minor, to seek from the Persians the means of restoration. Soon after his departure, a democratic republic was established in Athens by the Alcæonid, Cleisthenes. Hitherto the four hundred members of the council had been chosen from the four ancient family districts, and the preference had been given to the landed nobility. These districts were now abolished, and thus the old family connections were destroyed. In their place Cleisthenes introduced ten new districts, each composed of ten small wards. This was a geographical and political arrangement, which led to the equality of all the citizens, to new names and to new protecting deities. The larger districts were called Phyles. The council of five hundred was chosen annually by them,—fifty members from every district, without regard to rank or property. An executive committee, composed of fifty members of the council called Prytanes, conducted the government for thirty-six days, residing, during this time, in the town hall (or Prytaneum), and supported at the public expense. They presided also at the assemblies of the people. From each of the ten districts, six thousand citizens were chosen by lot to serve as judges (Heliasts). The archonship and the Areopagus continued to exist, but only as officers of honor, without important functions.



PERSIAN NOBLE AND WARRIORS.

#### *The Seven Wise Men.*

§ 48. Periander of Corinth, Solon of Athens, Thales of Miletus, the creator of

Greek philosophy, were the most famous of the seven Greek sages. Their principles have been handed down to us in short proverbs like "Do everything with reflection" (Periander), "Moderation in all things," (Solon), "Know thyself," (Chilo of Sparta).

*Pythagoras.* One of the most important men of this time was Pythagoras of Samos,

**B. C. 580-500.** the founder of the Pythagorean society, which had many adherents, and was highly esteemed in Crotona and other cities of Lower Italy. The members of this community led a temperate and morally-strict life, lived together in unity and devotedly revered their famous master. They were expert in mathematics and in music, and Pythagoras himself, was the inventor of the Pythagorean proposition concerning the square on the hypotenuse of the right triangle.

### e. *Lyric Poetry.*

§ 49. The courts of the Tyrants led a merry life. Poets and bards were always welcomed. As the epic poem was too serious, an easier and a gayer sort of poetry came into vogue, called lyrical, because sung to the accompaniment of the lyre. Wine and love were the themes of these lyrics, and they were intended to drive away sorrow and care. Anacreon, of Teos in Ionia, who lived at several courts, and died at Athens

*Anacreon,* in his eightieth year, was the most famous singer of such songs which,

**B. C. 559-478.** after him, are called Anacreontic. But other famous poets found, in the brevity of life and the transitory nature of all earthly things, an occasion for sorrow and melancholy; and these produced the elegy in which the hexameter and the pentameter verse were united to form a distich. Simonides of Keos was the most famous

*Simonides,* of the Elegiac poets. The lyric poems, in which the poet took a higher flight, and celebrated some sublime object in solemn strains, were called

**B. C. 556-468.**

*Sappho, about*

**B. C. 590.**

*Pindar,*

**B. C. 518-441.**

*Archilochos,*

**about B. C. 700.**

*Æsop, about*

**B. C. 560.**

*Theognis,*

**B. C. 570-490.**

every short poem was counted lyrical even though it could not be sung to music. Satires especially became quite popular; the inventor of these was Archilochos of Paros, who converted lyrical poetry into a sharp weapon against personal enemies. Fables were invented by Æsop, a Phrygian slave, whose life is veiled in such obscurity, that the story of Æsop is itself a fable. The Gnomie poetry, or the poetical proverb, comes from Theognis of Megara, the fiery hater of the Democrats, by whom he was driven from his home.

## II. THE GLORIOUS DAYS OF GREECE.

### § 50.

#### 1. THE PERSIAN WARS.



THE Greek colonies, on the coast of Asia Minor, had been conquered by Cyrus. Accustomed to a life of freedom they bore the Persian yoke, but could not shake it off, because the noble Greeks who were appointed princes of the different cities, and therefore attached to the court of Susa knew how to maintain their people in obedience. One of the mightiest among them was Histiaëus, Prince of Miletus. He had been with Cyrus in his campaign against the Scythians,



and had been commanded to guard, with his Greeks, the bridge across the Danube. But when the news arrived of the misfortunes of the Persians, he was advised by Miltiades of Athens, who, as possessor of great estates on the Thracian peninsula, paid heavy tribute to the Persians, to destroy the bridge, and to abandon the king and all his army to destruction. Thus the Greeks might regain their freedom. But Histiaeus would not carry out the project. Yet his fidelity was mistrusted, and he was ordered to Susa by Darius, ostensibly to receive the reward of his great services, but really to be watched by the suspicious king. This situation of mingled favor and restraint became unendurable to the Greek soldier. He longed to return to his native country, and, when he was not permitted to leave Susa, he secretly induced his relative Aristogoras of Miletus, to provoke an uprising of the discontented Greeks, so that he might find opportunity to return. The plan succeeded. Miletus and the other Greek colonies were soon in arms. Sparta, and other states of the mother country were appealed to for help, but only Athens responded. Darius wished to restore the exiled Hippias, then residing in Asia Minor, and hence the action of the Athenians. The little city Eretria also sent a small number of ships. The rebellion succeeded finely at first; the Greeks conquered and burned Sardis, the capital of Asia Minor, and the rebellion spread through all Ionia. But the Persian Governor defeated the land army at



MILTIADES.

Ephesus; the Greeks quarreled with each other, and the superior numbers of the enemy gave them the victory, in a sea fight at Lade, and led to the capture and destruction of Miletus. The Milesians were either put to death or led into slavery. Aristogoras fled to the Thracians, by whom he was killed; Histiaeus, who, upon being sent to Ionia, had joined the rebels, was taken prisoner and crucified. Ionia came again under Persian rule, and Darius swore to take bloody revenge upon the Athenians and the Eretrians, because they had supported the rebellion.



COIN OF SARDIS.

§ 51. Mardonius, the son-in-law of Darius, proceeded with a navy and an army along the Thracian coast, while Persian heralds demanded, of all the Greek states, water and earth, as tokens of submission. But his ships were driven, by a storm, against the promontory of Athos, and the Thracians defeated a part of his army so that he was compelled to return to Asia without accomplishing his mission. Ægina, and most of the islands, gave the heralds water and earth; but when they demanded them of Sparta and Athens, they were put to death, contrary to all tradition and international usage. Enraged at this insult, Darius despatched a second fleet under Datis, an older general, and the young Artaphernes. This fleet sailed through the Archipelago, subdued the Cyclades, and then attacked the city of Eretria. The citizens resisted bravely, but were betrayed to the enemy, who razed the city to the ground and carried off the inhabitants to Asia. The Persians then marched through

the island burning and destroying all before them, and, guided by Hippias to the coast of Attica, encamped in the plains of Marathon. The Athenians sent to the Spartans beseeching help. But an old religious law forbade the Spartans to depart for war before the full moon. So the Athenians, without waiting for them, marched valiantly against the enemy. The most noted of their ten generals was Miltiades, who had served formerly in the Persian army, and was thoroughly acquainted with their mode of warfare. Ten thousand Athenians, and 1000 Plateans, who had joined the former



GREEK GENERALS.

of their own accord, attacked the tenfold stronger army of the Persians. Miltiades had chosen for the conflict a place unfavorable for the Persian horsemen, and, in the battle of Marathon, he completely routed the Persian army.

*Sept. 12.*

*B. C. 490.*

The camp, with all its provisions, fell into the hands of the victors; the Persians rushed to their ships and sailed away. But the Grecian sentinels saw from the heights, with consternation, that the fleet was sailing around the promontory Sunium, and steering to the West, evidently intending to surprise the undefended city. The adherents of Hippias had doubtless suggested this to the Persians, and a flashing shield, elevated upon the mountains, was to serve as a signal. Their cavalry, and a part of the army, had probably embarked, before the battle, for this very purpose. Miltiades acted promptly. Leaving Aristides with his men to guard the battlefield, he hastened, with the main army, to the

city, and arrived at Athens, just as the Persians were about to land. At the sight of this band of heroes, Datis and Artaphernes abandoned their purpose and sailed away. Hippias died on the return voyage. Great, however, was the fame of the Athenians, who were the first to prove themselves worthy of the democratic freedom which they had just achieved, and centuries afterward, patriotic orators used the victory of Marathon to inspire the Athenian people. Beside the burial mounds, which are yet visible upon the plain of Marathon, the Athenians erected a monument to the champions of Greece, who had hurled to the ground the power of the gold-clad Medes and Persians. They erected also, a separate monument for Miltiades. The day after the battle two thousand Spartans arrived to help the Athenians. They visited the battlefield, praised the heroic deeds of the Athenians, and then returned home.



DARIC COIN. (Persia.)

§ 52. Miltiades, the savior of Greece, did not long enjoy his fame. He persuaded the Athenians to man a fleet, in order to conquer the islands of the Ægean

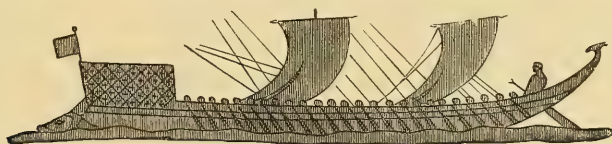
*B. C. 489.*

Sea, which had submitted to the Persians. But as the attack upon Paros miscarried, he was accused before the people, of having deceived the Athenians by delusive promises. When the trial took place, he had not yet recovered from a wound received at Paros, and had to be carried into the courthouse on a stretcher. The pen-

alty of death, proposed by his enemies, was not inflicted; but he was condemned to pay the costs of the war. Before he could get together the sum of fifty talents (\$50,000), he died. His large-minded son, Cimon, paid the fine, and gave his father an honorable burial. Aristides, surnamed the Just, and Themistocles, were two Athenians of extraordinary abilities. Both had fought bravely at Marathon, and both sought to make the city great, but in different ways. Aristides would use no means to accomplish his ends, which were not entirely honorable and just. He followed his conscience, and saw no salvation for the state, except in the land-holding population and in the land army. Themistocles, an ambitious man, who could not sleep for thinking of the glory of Miltiades, was less conscientious. He considered only the advantage and the greatness of the city, and frequently resorted to cunning and to deception. Moreover, he thought that the safety of Athens lay in her "wooden walls," that is in her ships and sailors. Abler than Aristides, he soon acquired greater popularity with the people, and in order to carry out his plans unhindered, he procured the banishment of the



THEMISTOCLES. (Vatican, Rome.)



FORTY OARED GREEK BOAT. (Vase Painting).

**B. C. 483.** straightforward Aristides, by the so-called "potsherd" judgment\* (Ostracism; the name scratched upon a potsherd).



XERXES.

§ 53. Great preparations for a new invasion of Greece were being made, when Darius died. His successor, Xerxes, a man puffed up with pride and flattery, took up his father's plan of revenge upon so large a scale that, according to tradition, he collected an army of 1,700,000 men, and a fleet of more than twelve

**B. C. 481.** hundred ships. Having completed his preparations, and suppressed an uprising in Egypt with great success, he collected all his troops at Sardis, and then marched confidently across Ilium to the Hellespont. It was a motley army of all nations and all tongues, clad in various costumes and carrying all kinds of weapons, with which the Persian king crossed over two pontoon

\* This was an arrangement by means of which every citizen who became so prominent as to endanger the equality of the citizens and the democratic constitution could be banished for a space of time, usually for ten years, without prejudice to his rights or to his honor. To be ostracised was not a punishment but a political defeat.



bridges not far from Abydos. Seven days, without interruption, were required to cross the Hellespont, and the army was followed by an endless procession of



BATTLE OF THERMOPYLÆ.

servants, of wagons filled with women and chambermaids, menservants and maid-servants, baggage, ornaments, and the like. The heavy armed Persian on his fiery horse, the half naked Arab on his camel, the tribes of East Iran with bow and battle-ax, the troops from Asia Minor, and the troops from the Caucasus with willow-work shields and wooden helmets, the Ethiopians in the skins of panthers and of lions, were all to be seen in this amazing army. From the Hellespont they marched across Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly; the fleet meanwhile sailing along the coast, in order to supply the army with whatever was needed. That the ships might not be shattered again at Athos, Xerxes employed Greek and Phœnician laborers to blast it and dig it away. Thessaly submitted without a blow. Bœotia, Argos and some of the

smaller states were glad to offer earth and water. With threats the enemy came still nearer. The Greeks now showed what could be done by union, courage, and patriot-

ism. At the urging of Themistocles they quickly established a union, proclaimed a general peace, and placed themselves under the lead of Sparta. In July, at the time

**B. C. 480.** of the Olympic games, Xerxes appeared at the pass of Thermopylæ, which was held by the Spartan king Leonidas, with three hundred Spartans and a few thousand allies. When commanded to surrender his arms, the Spartan leader answered, "Come and take them," and when told that the multitude of the enemy was so great that their shots and arrows would darken the sun, another answered, "So much the better, then we shall fight in the shade!" For several days, the

Persian king tried in vain to force a passage; thousands of his soldiers fell victims to the bravery of the Greeks. Even the ten thousand immortals, the flower of the Persian army, must yield to Spartan strength. But a Greek traitor conducted a part of the Persian army, by a foot-path across the summit of the Oeta, so that they could fall upon the rear of the Greeks below. Hearing of this, Leonidas dismissed the troops of his allies; but he himself, with his three hundred Spartans along with seven hundred citizens of Thespiæ, who refused to leave him, chose to die a hero's death. Attacked from both sides, they fought with leonine courage, until overcome

by numbers, and worn out by fighting and from wounds, they perished utterly. Only the Thebans who had been compelled to take part in the fight, were treated mercifully; but even these were marked with the stamp of the royal slaves, and sent home in dishonor. Leonidas and his heroic band were celebrated ever afterward in song, and a bronze lion marked the place where the Dorian hero had fallen. Bœotia and Phocis were now easily subdued, and the Persians pressed forward into Attica and reduced Athens to ashes. The old warriors who garrisoned the castle, after a brave resistance, were put to death. All citizens capable of bearing arms, were serving in the



APOLLO BELVIDERE.

fleet. Women, children, and property had been, at the suggestion of Themistocles, carried to Salamis, Ægina, and other cities. A messenger was dispatched in haste to Susa, with the news of the triumph of the great king. A single accident disturbed his pleasure. A portion of the Persian army had marched to Parnassus, to rob and to destroy the sanctuary of Delphi. But when the warriors were clambering up the steep paths of the gloomy region, invisible hands hurled at them fragments of stone and rock, so that many were killed, and the others fled in terror. The Delphian's did not fail to ascribe the salvation of their temple to the intervention of their mighty god.



RETURN OF THE GREEKS FROM SALAMIS.

§ 54. Themistocles now became the savior of Greece. The united fleet of the Greeks had sailed from the promontory Artemisium, where it had fought successfully for several days, into the Saronian Bay, whither the Persian fleet had followed. Eurybiades, the leader of the Spartan fleet, had determined to withdraw with the Peloponnesian ships, and to carry on the fight near the Isthmus of Corinth, in order to have the protection of the land force that was stationed there and covered by a wall. Themistocles regarded this plan as dangerous, and so he cunningly enticed the Persian king to attack him in the narrow waters, where the hostile ships would be hindered by their own numbers. Thus happened the sea fight of Salamis, in which the



Greeks were completely victorious. In despair, Xerxes beheld from a neighboring eminence, the destruction of his fleet and informed, through the cunning of Themistocles, that the Greeks intended to destroy the bridges across the Hellespont, he hastily retreated with the greatest part of his army through Thessaly, Macedonia and Thrace. But thousands of his warriors perished from hunger, cold, and fatigue, and great throngs were drowned in the river Strymon, by the breaking of the ice.

§ 55. Xerxes left three hundred thousand picked soldiers under the command of Mardonius in Thessaly. These invaded Attica when the Athenians refused an offered alliance, and compelled the citizens, who besought the Spartans in vain for speedy help, once more to emigrate to the huts of Salamis. But when finally the Spartans sent a Peloponnesian army across the isthmus, in answer to the beseechings

**B. C. 479.** and threats of the Athenians, the battle of Platæa was fought by the Greeks under the command of the Spartan Pausanias, assisted by the Athenian General, Aristides. The Persian army, though three times as strong, was completely defeated and only 40,000 Persians returned across the Hellespont. The others, among them the brave commander Mardonius, were slain; some in the battle, some at the storming of their camp, and some in their flight. The booty was immense. Upon the altar of "liberating" Zeus, the sacrificial fire flamed high. On the same day the Persians suffered a second defeat at Mykale, on the coast of Asia Minor, where they had drawn their ships ashore, and surrounded them with a fence of willow-work and reeds. Here too a Spartan was the leader, but the bravery of the Athenians and of the Milesians, made him successful. The camp and fleet of the enemy were captured and destroyed by fire, and the sword of the Greeks made terrible havoc among the frightened and flying Persians.

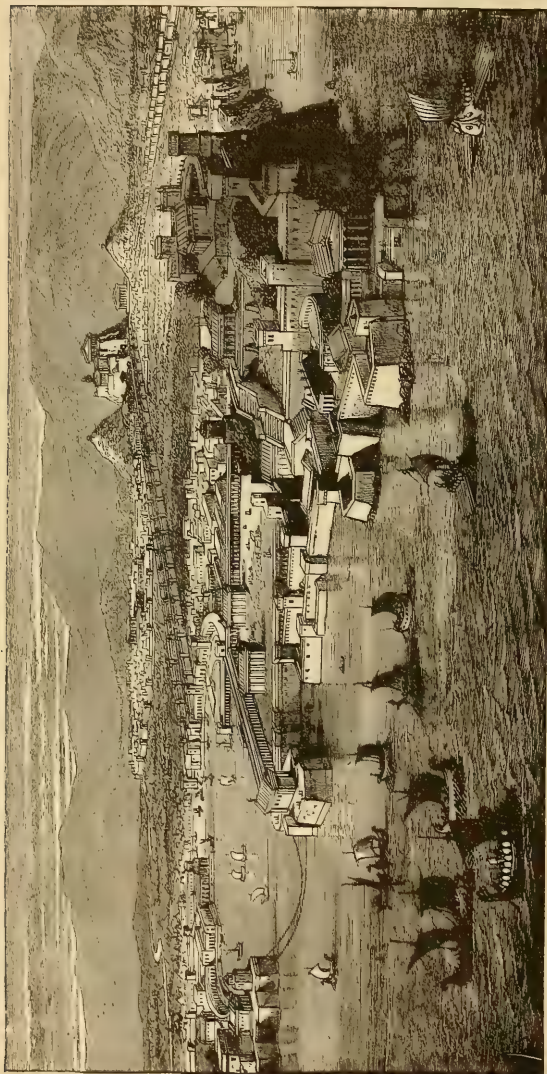


MEDEAN AND PERSIAN NOBLES.

## 2.—ATHEN'S OVERLORDSHIP (HEGEMONY) AND THE PERICLEAN AGE.

§ 56. After the battle of Platæa the war was waged chiefly at sea. As the Spartans possessed fewer ships, the command gradually passed over to the Athenians, who had behaved moreover, during the whole war, with much bravery and magnanimity. The treason of the Spartan General Pausanias also furthered the leadership of the Athenians. Certain noble Persians, among them relatives and friends of the king, had been taken prisoners at the capture of Byzantium (Constantinople). These were sent by Pausanias, without the knowledge of his allies, to their royal master. Pretending that they had escaped secretly, they carried, really, a message to Xerxes, from the Spartan General, that he would help him to conquer all Greece, if the king would give him his daughter in marriage, and make him governor of the Peloponnesus. When Xerxes agreed to this, the ambitious man became so arrogant that he disregarded en-

tirely the Spartan laws and modes of life: clothed himself in fine raiment, spread a



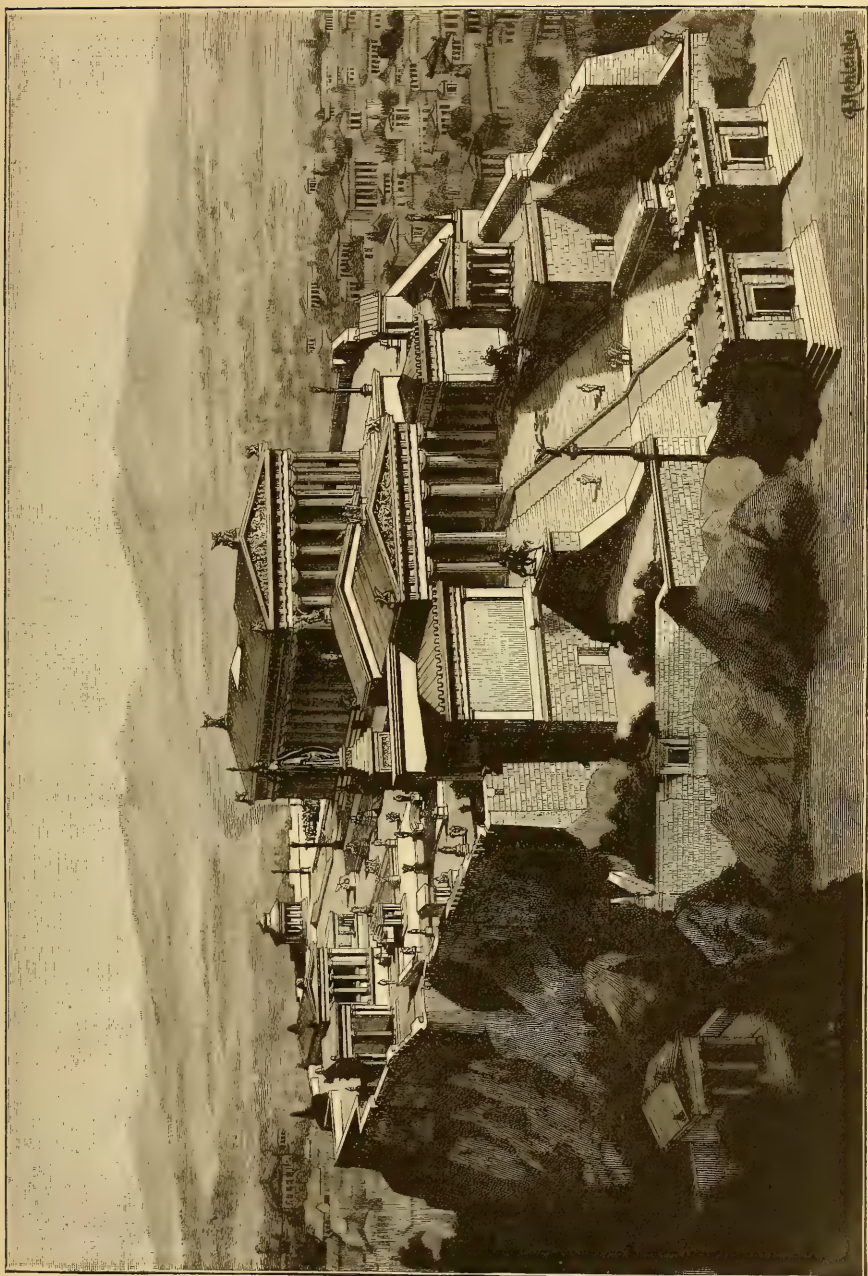
ANCIENT ATHENS.

splendid table, and was accompanied and served by Persian staff bearers. At the same time his tyrannical nature made the Spartan authority everywhere unpopular. The Spartans, when informed of his conduct, recalled him; but their authority among maritime states was so weak, that they voluntarily gave up the chief control, although they maintained in form their right to command. Pausanias still carried on in Sparta secret communication with the Persian king, but his treason was exposed by a slave. He fled

*About B. C. 421.* to a temple as a suppliant, but the enraged Spartans closed the temple gates upon him, and compelled him to die of starvation.

§ 57. While Pausanias was thus destroying the power of his country, the three Athenian commanders were contributing greatly to the prosperity of their native city, by their remarkable, though various talents. Themistocles

surrounded Athens with a strong wall, and built the splendid harbor of the Piræus,



ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.



which was afterward united by Cimon and Pericles with the main city, by a long double wall. This brought upon him the irreconcilable hatred of the Spartans. For they did not wish Athens to be fortified, and consequently they charged Themistocles with complicity in the treason of Pausanias;—this too at a time when his enemies had succeeded in ostracising him for ten years. Themistocles

**B. C. 471.** now fled to Asia. The Persian king gave him an honorable welcome, and three cities of Asia Minor for his maintenance. But when the king urged him to assist in subduing Greece, he is said to have taken poison rather than become the betrayer of his country. His ashes were secretly deposited by his friends in Grecian soil, and centuries afterward his posterity possessed considerable rights in Magnesia. Aristides, by his integrity, contributed greatly to the prosperity of Athens. The confidence reposed in his character induced the Greek

**B. C. 496.** islands and maritime cities to make an alliance with the Athenians, in which they pledged themselves to contribute money and ships for the prosecution of the war.



PERICLES. (*British Museum, London.*)

A treasury was established at Delos, and the management of this common treasure as well as the leadership of the union fleet, was given to the Athenians. But the furnishing of ships soon became a burden to the small states, and they compounded for it by higher contributions. This gave the Athenians the wished-for opportunity to increase their navy, and to bring many islands and smaller maritime states under their control. Their naval superiority enabled them to bring the allied treasure to Athens, and to deposit it in the sanctuary of Pallas Athene. They could also treat their allies as tributary subjects. Aristides died so poor that the state provided for his funeral, and for the education of his children.

§ 58. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, and Pericles contributed no less to the greatness of Athens. The first, by  
**B. C. 466.** his successful enterprises at sea, for he had a double victory in Asia Minor over the fleet and the army of the Persians. This closed the war, and brought about the

so-called peace of Cimon, which secured independence to all the Greek cities and islands. He enlarged the territory of the Athenian state, and expended his large fortune in the adornment of the city, where he laid out the beautiful gardens and the famous portico known as the Academy and the Stoa. In his time, Sparta was sorely

**B. C. 465.** afflicted by a terrible earthquake. The greater part of the city was destroyed, and in the midst of the distress, the Messenians and Helots took up arms to conquer their freedom. In their extremity the Spartans appealed to Athens, and Cimon, who had a great preference for their institutions, succeeded in getting an army sent to their assistance. But the suspicious Spartans sent it back, which so

**B. C. 463.** offended the Athenians, that they ostracised Cimon, and gave to the Messenians the maritime city Naupactus, when they were obliged, after a ten years'

**B. C. 455.** struggle, to give up their mountain fortress, Ithome. At the battle

**B. C. 457.** of Tanagra, the Spartans and their Thessalian allies, obtained some

advantages over the Athenians who would not permit the banished Cimon to fight in their ranks. But the brave conduct of his old comrades, who threw away their lives in the struggle, convinced the Athenians that Cimon was a true patriot. So they called him back, and obtained a new victory at Grape mountain, (Oenophyta). This established their overlordship in all Greece. Cimon died on the island of

*Pericles*, Cyprus, in the year 449, in the midst of a new campaign against about **B. C. 450**. the Persians. Pericles was so distinguished for his talents, his culture, his eloquence and his military skill, and exercised such an influence upon the community, and the people of Athens, that the years of his activity are known as "The Age of Pericles." He adorned the state and city by the erection of temples and great buildings (Parthenon, Propylæum). He encouraged the arts and sciences, he invited men of genius, like the great artist, Phidias, into his hospitable home, where Aspasia, of Miletus, presided with grace and dignity; he procured for everyone means and opportunity to perfect and to distinguish himself, and created a taste for art, literature, and poetry in the lowest classes of the people. Though noble and rich by birth, he was a man of the people, and devoted to democratic principles. To him was due the ordinance that every Athenian citizen, who served in a court of justice, or who was present at the popular assembly, or served in the army or the navy, should receive a daily stipend. He made generous distribution of money among the needy masses. He arranged for splendid festivals, plays, and processions for the pleasure of the people, and he brought the Athenian state to such a degree of culture, that almost all citizens were capable of holding office, and hence the arrangement by which nearly all public places were filled by lot, was less dangerous in Athens, than it would have been in any other city. At the same time Pericles preserved for Athens her rank among the other states; Athenian ships ruled the Ægean sea, making the Islanders tributary to the city, and bringing to it immense sums of money. The statue of Pallas Athene in the Parthenon, wore a garment of beaten gold. Athenian armies fought victoriously against



ALCIBIADES.

**B. C. 447.** Thebans and Spartans, until the fatal battle of Coronea ended their good fortune. In this battle the Athenians were beaten

**B. C. 445.** by Bœotian aristocrats and fugitives. Many were slain, many were captured, and Pericles was compelled to save the city from destruction by a hasty peace.

### 3. PELOPONNESIAN WAR. (431-404.)

§ 59. This peace of Pericles was of short duration. The prosperity of the Athenians filled Sparta with envy and dislike. The arrogance and severity with which Athens treated her subjugated allies, especially the island Ægina, created dissatisfaction and hate. Two hostile powers soon confronted each other: the Athenian union, to which most of the cities of the coast and the islands belonged, which was supported by the democratic party in all the states, and the chief strength of which consisted in its navy; and the Peloponnesian union, with Sparta at his head, to which

the Dorian and the Æolian states adhered, which was supported by the aristocratic party of the different cities, and which relied upon its veteran army. The Spartans hesitated long before beginning the conflict, but when the Corinthians complained that the Athenians had broken the peace, by assisting the island Corcyra in her war against the mother city, and when they complained that the Athenians had besieged and sorely distressed the Corinthian colony, Potidæa, in Macedonia, and when the little Dorian city, Megara, whose life depended upon its trade with Athens, complained that it was excluded from all the sea-ports and markets of Attica, the Peloponnesian War

**B. C. 431.** was begun. A war that lasted twenty-seven years and devastated the country most terribly.

§ 60. The war was declared. A Spartan army under King Archidamus, invaded Attica and devastated the land. Pericles thereupon gathered the people into the city, and equipped a fleet that sailed along the coast of the Peloponnesus, and ravaged the

country everywhere. But the overcrowding of Athens pro-

**B. C. 429.** duced a terrible plague. Thousands were swept away, and at last Pericles himself fell a victim, after he had buried his two sons and many of his dearest friends. The death of the great man was for Athens a terrible misfortune, because selfish demagogues like the tanner Kleon, acquired great influence by flattering the people, and sought to prolong the war. Athens, weakened by the strife of parties, saw the

**B. C. 427.** Plateans, their truest allies, yield to the Spartans, and saw Platea herself leveled to the ground, her courageous citizens slaughtered, and their wives and children led away to slavery.

Lesbos and Mitylene were, on the other hand, conquered by the Athenians. In their rage they determined to kill all the male inhabitants, and to reduce all the women and children to slavery; but nobler feelings prevailed, and they executed only a thousand of the most guilty. Shortly after this, the Athenian general, Demosthenes, took possession of Pylos in

**DARIUS. II.** (*King of Persia, B. C. 424-405*).

**B. C. 425.** Messene, and began to lay waste the Spartan territory. The Spartans sought in vain to drive him out; their attack was repulsed, and more than 400 Spartan Hoplites were shut up in the barren island Sphacteria. Here they nearly perished of hunger; the only food that they received, came by the hands of daring Helots trying to earn their freedom. Finally they were compelled to surrender to Kleon, who was bringing reinforcements to the Athenians. Kleon thereupon believed himself to be a great general, obtained the command of the entire army, and marched against the Spartan general Brasidas in Thrace. But he was defeated at Amphipolis and killed in his flight. The peace party now obtained the upper hand at Athens and concluded the peace of Nicias. The struggle between

**B. C. 421.** the aristocratic and the democratic parties in the cities of Greece had meanwhile become dreadful. Nowhere was it bloodier, than on the island Corcyra, where the noble families were completely destroyed. With the help of the Athenians, the Democrats of the city overcame their enemies, shut them up in a building and stoned them to death. This was a death-blow to the prosperity of the beautiful





island, with its olive orchards. Where the Spartans conquered, the Aristocrats punished their enemies with death and banishment; where the Athenians prevailed, the Democrats treated their antagonists with equal severity.

§ 61. The conclusion of a peace, without consulting the allies, embroiled Sparta with the Corinthians; the latter united with Argos, Elis, and a few Arcadian cities, to deprive the Spartans of the over-lordship in the Peloponnesus. They were supported by the youthful Alcibiades, the nephew of Pericles, who now for the first time, gave proof of his skill and persuasive eloquence. He was rich, handsome, educated, and a powerful orator, so that he was fitted to take the place of Pericles, except that he lacked the tranquility and the prudence of his great relative. This war of the Spartans, with Corinth and her allies, would have ruined the city on the Eurotas if

**B. C. 418.** they had not been conquerors in the battle of Mantinea. The support given by the Athenians to the union of Argos, and her cruel treatment of the island Melos, which had remained neutral during the war, excited anew the wrath of the Spartans, and brought the rotten peace of Nicias to an end.

§ 62. The Athenians now sent the finest army and navy, which had ever sailed from the Piræus, against the Dorian city, Syracuse, in Lower Italy. The expedition was commanded by Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamachus. But Alcibiades was almost immediately recalled, to answer charges of crime against the religion and constitution of the city. He and his companions were accused of mutilating the busts of Hermes, at the street corners, and open places of the city, and of desecrating the Eleusinian mysteries in a private house. Hungering for revenge, he fled to Sparta and stirred up the Spartans to a renewal of the war. By his advice, the Spartans occupied the little city of Declea, in order to hinder the export of grain; and they sent their able general Gylippus to the help of the Syracusans. This determined the war against the Athenians. Lamachus fell at the siege of Syracuse; the Athenian ships were destroyed in the harbor, and when Nicias and Demosthenes arrived with reinforcements, they were surprised by the Syracusans and their Spartan allies, and, after two bloody battles, were taken prisoners with all their troops. The Athenians who did not perish in the fight, worked as slaves in the stone quarries; the brave generals

**B. C. 413.** Nicias and Demosthenes perished in the market-place of Syracuse, by the hand of the executioner.

§ 63. Painful rumors brought the first news of the terrible blow, and when the rumors were confirmed, hardly a family in Athens escaped mourning. The allies of the city abandoned her, and joined the enemy; the Spartans renewed the war by land and by sea, and the Persian Governor of Asia Minor supported them. The aristocratic party, in the city itself, sought to overthrow the constitution, and made a secret compact with the Spartans. But in spite of all, the Athenians held out for eight years against her enemies, and won two important naval battles. They recalled Alcibiades, and made him commander of army and navy. They could easily plunge the columns, upon which his crimes were inscribed, into the depths of the sea, but neither they nor he could restore the ancient glory of the Athenian fleet. The acclamations of the citizens might greet the returning exile, and even the gods might seem to be appeased with his revival of the Eleusinian procession. It was a passing dream. In a few months he was degraded from the command, because, in his absence, the battle of

**B. C. 407.** Ephesus was lost by his subordinates. He withdrew to Thrace. And

for a moment fortune favored the Athenians. They won the victory of Lesbos, in **B. C. 406.** which the Spartan general Kallikratidas was slain, but in their joy, they neglected to gather together the corpses and the fragments of ships. For this omission, six of the Athenian generals were condemned to death.

§ 64. The astute and enterprising Lysander, was at this time the leader of the Spartans. He availed himself of the favor of Cyrus, the younger, governor of Asia Minor, to enlarge the Lacedæmonian fleet with Persian reinforcements. He took advantage also of the negligence of the Athenian commanders who, contrary to all discipline, had permitted their crews to go ashore. He fell upon them suddenly at

**B. C. 405.** Ægospotamos (Goat's River), near the Hellespont, and captured all their ships but nine. The power of Athens was gone. Lysander first reduced to subjection the islands and cities friendly to the Athenians, and then attacked Athens by sea and land. The crowded city, torn and tortured by party strife, and by starvation,

**B. C. 404.** soon surrendered. The long walls and fortifications were pulled down to the sound of the flute: all the ships, save twelve, were given over to the Spartans, and all the fugitives and exiles brought back. Lysander then proclaimed the end of the republic, abolished the democratic institutions at one stroke, and established the government of "The thirty tyrants." At the head of these Athenian Aristocrats stood Critias, a talented but passionate man, who punished the leaders of the democratic party with death and banishment. Nor did he spare the moderate men who dared to differ with him. Thus Theramenes, a man of great ability, and acquainted with all the movements of this troubled time, was put to death by this Spartan-Athenian.

Lysander arranged also for the destruction of Alcibiades. His dwelling was surrounded and set on fire, by the troops of the Persian Governor of Asia Minor; when he tried to escape from the flames, he was shot to death with arrows. He was not yet fifty years old.

Nevertheless, this reign of terror was of short duration. Thrasybulus, a patriot and a resolute man, collected the fugi-

**B. C. 403.** tives and the exiles and marched against Athens. Critias fell in battle; the others of the Thirty were betrayed into the hands of the victorious patriots. Some were executed; the rest were banished. Euclides, the first Archon, and Pausanias, the Spartan king, thereupon agreed upon a compromise between the two parties. The democratic constitution was restored, the rights of property conserved, and a general amnesty proclaimed. But the people were too degenerate for the old laws and institutions; they loved ease and

quiet and pleasure; they hated discipline and effort; and courtesans, with their enticing wickedness, undermined the family life and the home.

#### 4. SOCRATES.

§ 65. This degeneracy of the Athenians was due largely to the Sophists. These were itinerant teachers, who taught a sham-wisdom full of subtleties and fallacies; theirs was the art to make "the worse appear the better reason." Wealthy young men paid them enormous fees for teachings, which poisoned the sources of domestic



SOCRATES.



DESTRUCTION OF THE ATHENIAN ARMY IN SICILY. (*H. Vogel.*)



and civic life. In opposition to these Sophists, Socrates entered the lists. He was an Athenian citizen, a sculptor by profession, whose aim was to unmask these charlatans, and to awaken in the hearts of his scholars, the feeling for religion, morality and right. Socrates delivered no lectures, but by questions and answers in the open street, or under the blue sky, or in the Athenian workshops, he taught his philosophy, the chief object of which was, "KNOW THYSELF." Even Alcibiades and Critias could not resist the charm of his personality, ugly as his features were; and the Sophists were speechless before his luminous mind, his simple and unpretentious life, his moral dignity and his scorn of wealth. But his questions and cross questions, and his biting irony, made



DEATH OF SOCRATES. (*David.*)

him many enemies. And as several of his scholars had taken part in the overthrow of democracy, a charge was brought against him, when popular government was restored, for corrupting Athenian youths and for teaching false gods. In a simple defense, Socrates proved to his judges the falsity of this charge. But instead of beseeching them with tears and moans, to acquit him, he closed his speech with the assertion that he had earned a place in the ranks of those honorable men who, for their public services, were maintained in the city hall at the state's expense. This angered the Judges, and by a small majority, they condemned Socrates to death. His friends, especially the rich citizen Crito, urged him to escape. He refused. With his friends



Alcibiades,

Agathon.

Socrates.

# A GREEK SYMPOSIUM.

(pp. 117.)



about him, he discoursed, in his last hours, upon the immortality of the soul, and then

**B. C. 399.** drank the fatal hemlock with the cheerfulness and tranquility of a sage. He wrote nothing. But his famous disciple Plato, who taught in the academy, placed his own doctrines in the mouth of Socrates. Plato himself was called the divine, on account of his sublime ideas and his poetic imagery, and the artistic perfection of his expositions. These were in the form of dialogues, and abound in sublimities and subtleties of thought, as well as in extraordinary beauties of expression. Xenophon, the Athenian writer and general, was another famous disciple of Socrates, whose nature and teaching he made known to posterity, in several philosophical writings, and particularly in his *Memorabilia*, or "Reminiscences of Socrates."

## 5. THE RETREAT OF THE TEN THOUSAND (B. C. 400)

§ 66. Xenophon's chief historical work is the *Anabasis*. This is an account of the campaign of the younger Cyrus against Persia, and the retreat of the Greek soldiers under his (Xenophon's) leadership. After her conflict with the Greeks, the Persian kingdom grew continually weaker. In the provinces the Satraps did as they pleased, and provoked rebellion everywhere; at court the selfish weaklings and the intriguing women abandoned themselves to lust and luxury, and by their struggles for the crown, destroyed the monarchy. Under these circumstances the younger Cyrus, satrap of Asia Minor, conceived the plan of depriving his brother Artaxerxes of the kingdom. He collected a considerable army, the corps of which consisted of Spartan

**B. C. 401.** and Greek soldiers, and started for Persia. In the plains of Cunaxa a battle took place, in which the Greeks were victorious, but Cyrus was slain by his brother. The victorious Hellenes were therefore summoned to surrender: they refused. The Persians then agreed, with an oath, that they should return home unmolested, under the command of Tissaphernes. But on the way, Clearchus and the other Greek commanders

were inveigled to an interview, and treacherously murdered by the Persians. Xenophon, who had accompanied the expedition as a volunteer, now placed himself at the head of the disheartened and bewildered Greeks, and led them through incredible perils to the shores of the Black Sea, and thence to Byzantium. Without knowledge of the country or the language, and without guides, they were compelled to cross pathless mountains, to wade through rivers, and to pierce the snow drifts of deep and dangerous gorges; everywhere pursued by the Persians and attacked by the natives. When at last they beheld, from an eminence, the waves of the sea, they fell upon their knees and greeted it with cries of joy. In Trapezium they rested for thirty days, regaling themselves with festivals and contests. Finding no ships to take them to Byzantium, they marched by land along the coast of the Black Sea. Cheirosophus, the Spartan companion of Xenophon, died at Sinope; and Xenophon led the remnant



PLATO.



to Thrace, where for a time they served as mercenaries. Finally they followed the Spartan King, Agesilaus, to Asia Minor. Xenophon returned to Athens, was banished immediately, and ended his days in the Peloponnesus.

#### 6. THE TIME OF AGESILAUS AND EPAMINONDAS.

§ 67. Sparta was now the chief power in Greece. But she misused her authority, oppressed the other states, and excited the hatred of her allies. The ancient simplicity and severity of life had long disappeared. Foreign wars had brought wealth; this produced greed and luxury and a train of evils. Kings and leaders became purchasable: a few families possessed boundless riches, in which they rioted,



EPAMINONDAS SAVING THE LIFE OF PELOPIDAS. (*H. Vogel.*)

while the poor lacked food and raiment, and not even Agesilaus proved strong enough to restore the ancient customs. Nor were the other states any longer the homes of virtue and patriotic zeal. The citizens abandoned military service to hireling soldiers, and laid aside their arms and love of glory.

The Persians, angry at the Spartans for their secret support of Cyrus, compelled them to a war. Agesilaus was already pressing victoriously through Asia Minor, when

*Agesilaus.* the Persians stirred up enemies at home against him. The Bœotians, and Corinthians, jealous of Sparta and insulted often by her, were easily induced, by Persian gold, to join against her. Humiliated Athens ventured

*B. C. 396-358.* to assist. Another war began, of which Bœotia was the theatre. At

*B. C. 395.*

Haliartus, Lysander lost the battle and his life. The Spartans, in their extremity, recalled their exiled King Agesilaus. Coronea was won by him, but the Persians under the Athenian Conon, rendered his victory worthless, by their defeat of the Spartan ships at Cuidas. Agesilaus withdrew to the Peloponnesus, to carry on the war with Corinth; Conon, with the help of Persia, set about restoring the fortifications of Athens and the Piræus. All the Greek states now vied with

each other for the favor of the Great King, and Sparta agreed to the peace of Antalcidas, in which the west coast of Asia Minor was ceded to the Persians, and lost to freedom forever.

§ 68. This peace contained the further declaration that all Greek states should be free. The Spartans, as guardians and executors of the treaty, dissolved therefore all alliances. They conquered

and destroyed Mantinea, compelling the inhabitants to live in open towns; they placed their aristocratic adherents in authority in all the cities; they exercised throughout Greece a compulsory arbitration. "Pride goeth" however "before a fall." The Greek cities of Macedonia had formed an alliance, under the lead of Olynthia. The Spartans commanded them to dissolve. They refused. A Spartan army landed at Olynthia,

and compelled submission. Returning through Bœotia, the Spartan leader, at the entreaty of the Aristocrats of Thebes, took possession of the castle, and overthrew the democratic constitution of the state. The Democrats were exiled, or executed, or imprisoned.



TRAGIC FIGURE OF  
GREEK THEATRES.

(Made from colored  
ivory.)



EPAMINONDAS.

§ 69. The Aristocrats did not long continue their exultation and their violence. The fugitive Democrats collected at Athens, and opened correspondence with their friends at Thebes. It was agreed that they should return disguised as peasants; and assembling secretly in the house of a friend, should surprise and murder the chiefs of the aristocratic party. The plot succeeded. The democratic constitution was restored; the Spartan garrison was compelled to surrender the castle. This led of course to war. Thebes was then fortunately under the guidance of two great and patriotic citizens, Pelopidas and Epaminondas. Both of them were remarkable for courage and military genius. Epaminondas invented the Theban phalanx, and Pelopidas organized the young men into the "sacred troop," (compare the new model of Cromwell, the Ironsides). The Athenians at first supported the Thebans, but when Thebes began to subject the neighboring cities to herself, especially

the re-built Platæa, her ancient ally, Athens, united with Sparta in a new treaty. Thebes refused to accept the condi-

tions of this agreement, and a Spartan army invaded Bœotia. But at the battle of Leuctra, Epaminondas and Pelopidas routed them so completely, that the power of Sparta was broken

forever. Four hundred Spartans and six hundred Pericæi, with their general Cleombrotus perished in the fight; and the fugitives were so numerous, that Agesilaus "put to sleep" the old Spartan law, which required all who fled the field to be branded as dishonorable.



THE RETURN OF THE TEN THOUSAND UNDER XENOPHON. (*H. Vogel.*)



§ 70. Epaminondas now invaded the Peloponnesus, and approached the never-fortified capitol of Laconia, that had seen no enemy in five hundred years. But the preparations of Agesilaus, and the determined attitude of the Spartans and of their wives and children, restrained him from attack. But he emancipated the Messenians, gave to the exiled children the land of their fathers, and rebuilt for them the

**B. C. 369.** city of Messene. Four times in succession, Epaminondas marched through the Peloponnesus, the last time to chastise Megalopolis. The Spartans, and

**B. C. 362.** a part of the Arcadians, met him at Mantinea. The Spartans lost the battles, but the Thebans lost Epaminondas. Not until he was assured of victory, did the hero permit the fatal spear to be drawn from his wound, and (like Wolfe at



TYPES OF GREEK WOMEN. (Showing Dress of Hair.)

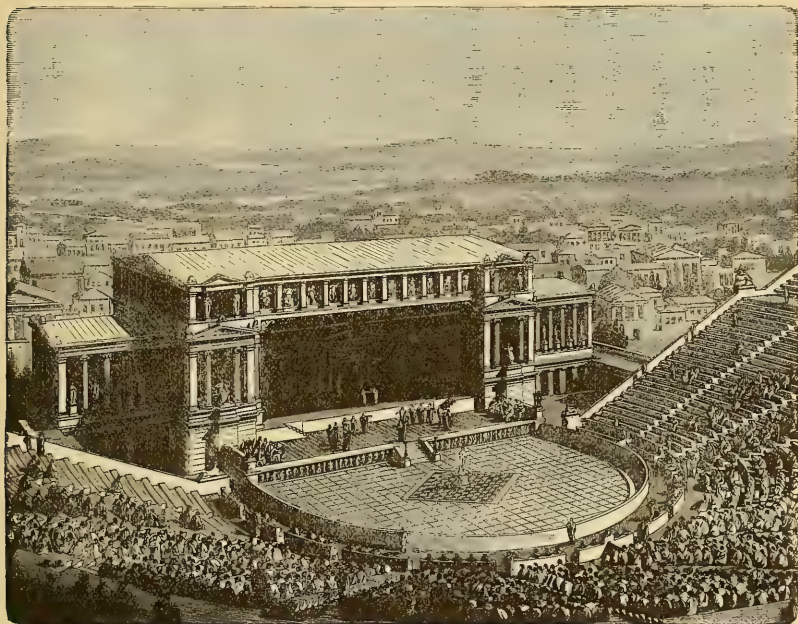
**B. C. 358.** Quebec) "die content." Pelopidas died two years earlier, and the octogenarian, Agesilaus, lost his life a few years later, returning from an adventurous expedition into Egypt. Epaminondas is a commanding figure in history. Magnanimous and just, a man of genius and of probity, a patriot and a warrior, he lived the life of the righteous, and died as poor as Aristides. With his dying breath, he counselled the Thebans to use their victory to gain a peace. The Athenians, who

**B. C. 358-355.** had renewed their naval power, attempted, it is true, to subjugate the maritime cities; but the Carion King Mausolus, and the threats of Persia compelled them to desist. Their new naval alliance was perforce dissolved. Greece was now a dismembered body; Hegemony henceforth a reminiscence only.

## 7.—THE GOLDEN AGE OF GREECE IN LITERATURE AND ART.

§ 71. While the Greeks were wasting their strength in struggle, and their freedom in party strife, the plastic and poetic arts reached their full perfection. The drama, which was originally connected with the religious festival of Dionysus, the God of the Vineyard, became most wonderful in the productions of Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. All three wrote tragedies. Æschylus, who

*Æschylus*, fought against the Persians at Salamis, was then in his forty-fifth year; Sophocles, then a boy of fifteen, sung in the chorus that celebrated the victory; and Euripides was born on the day of the



THE TEMPLE OF BACCHUS AT ATHENS. (*G. Rehlinger.*)

battle. Seven plays of Æschylus (*Prometheus Bound*, *Agamemnon*, *The Persians*) have been preserved; they breathe the spirit of the great fight for freedom and, though at times obscure and difficult, are bold in thought and sublime in style, reverent of the gods and of ancient customs, and inspired with a sense of human dignity. Seven tragedies of Sophocles have also been preserved (*Antigone*, *Œdipus*, *Electra*). These reflect the age of Pericles, its refinement and intellectual intercourse; they are, accordingly, the unapproachable models of beauty and harmonious completeness. Of Euripides we inherit nineteen pieces (*Medea*, *Alcestis*, *Iphigenia*). These belong to the period of

the Sophists. Feelings are more prominent and varied; the speeches abound in cunning phrases, epigrams and popular common-places, and the emotions of the spectator are adroitly played upon by scenes of suffering and lamentation. The creative energy and genuine pathos of Æschylus and Sophocles are atoned for in Euripides, by detailed descriptions, by excessive sensibility, and by smooth and ornate diction.



HERODOTUS.  
(Visconti.)

Aristophanes brought comedy to perfection. He mocked the faults and follies of his time with pungent and daring irony, for he did not hesitate to produce his contemporaries on the stage. In the "Frogs," he attacked the weeping Euripides and his pathetic dramas; in the "Clouds" he attacked Socrates, whom he represents as the worst and absurdest of the Sophists; and in the "Knights" he did not spare the mighty Cleon and the greedy demagogues of Athens. The Chorus of the Greek Drama is a lyric comment upon the action of the play; "but passing beyond the immediate scene, deals with the past and the future, with distant periods and peoples, with humanity and with life, discussing the great results of existence, and uttering the teachings of wisdom." (Compare Matthew Arnold's "Poetry is a Criticism of Life.") The leader of the chorus stood with his troop in front of the stage; the chorus expressing in rhythmic movements, and to the sound of

music, the feelings and the impressions produced upon the spectator, by the unfolding drama. The splendid theatres which were erected in many places, were masterpieces of architecture, and contributed greatly to the elevation of the drama. A wealthy citizen of Athens could do nothing more popular than to produce a new play, or a richly decorated chorus at his own expense.

§ 72. The prose literature of the Periclean age is quite as wonderful as the poetry. Plato's dialogues are the sub-

*Plato,*

*B. C. 429-348.*

*Herodotus,*

*B. C. 450.*

lime thoughts of a rich and creative mind, clothed in the noblest speech and forms of exposition. Herodotus, of Halicarnassus, described in candid and eloquent simplicity,

the conflicts of the Greeks with the Persians, interweaving with his narrative many traditions of the Oriental and Hellenic races. He had traveled widely, and conversed with the scholars and priests of all the lands, the history of which he narrated. He described, with singular accuracy, what he saw with his own eyes, though he repeats many fabulous stories learned from priests and poets. He wrote for the people in simple and hearty phrase. He tells how the Greek love of freedom, intelligent self-reliance and organization, proved victorious over Oriental servitude, undisciplined mobs and Asiatic pageantry. The deities are the directors of human affairs; history is the result of providential foresight; victory belongs not to the proud and the arrogant, but to the humble and patient. For Herodotus "the course of history is the judgment of the gods." The books of Herodotus, tradition tells us, inspired the patriot Thucydides



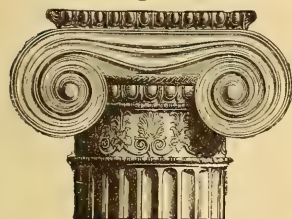
DEMOSTHENES.



**B. C. 470-402.** to his immortal work. Banished from Athens, for his late arrival at the battle of Amphipolis, he devoted the years of his exile to the composition of the history of the Peloponnesian War. His "thought-weighted" sentences made his work intelligible to the cultured only. In Herodotus, we have the calm and fulness of the epic, in Thucydides, the vivid brevity of the Drama. The History of the Peloponnesian War closes with the twenty-first year of its duration. Thucydides did not survive to see the ruin of his beloved Athens. He was murdered in 402, just after returning from his exile. But Xenophon took up the

*Xenophon*, incompleted task. Lucid, fluent, and

**B. C. 446-356.** picturesque in style, he had neither the depth or the historical fidelity of him, who gave us the immortal characterization of Pericles. An admirer and eulogist of the Spartans, especially of Agesilaus, Xenophon, in his narration, is resolutely and deliberately partial, so that the great Thebans, Pelopidas and Epaminondas are thrown into the shade. His history ends with the battle of Mantinea. Xenophon wrote also a pedagogical biography of the elder Cyrus, a kind of romance, in which he represented the founder of the Persian monarchy as a model regent. It is really a political pamphlet,—an attack upon the instability of republican government and a eulogy of royal rule.



IONIC CAPITAL.

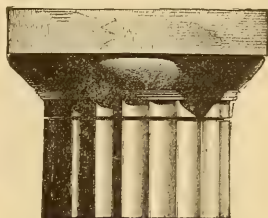
§ 73. Oratory also reached its highest development in Athens at this time. Eloquence was in the beginning a gift of Nature, an inborn talent. But at the time of the Peloponnesian war it was treated as an art. Schools of oratory were established, where the Athenian youths who wished to devote themselves to public life, to the management of the state or to the pleading of causes, were taught the principles of persuasion and the rules of delivery. Ten Attic orators have bequeathed to us written orations. The

*Isocrates*, greatest of these was Isocrates, who

**B. C. 436-338.** was distinguished not only for the perfection of his style, but for his great success as a teacher. The most famous of his pupils was Demosthenes, who struggled with incredible energy against

*Demosthenes*, natural disabilities, until he became

**B. C. 385-322.** the greatest orator of antiquity. He knew how to excite, to enchain, and to inspire his listeners. His delivery was dramatic, and his transitions from the serious to the sarcastic, swift and powerful. Witty and pathetic by turns, his invective was often terrible. He was a patriot and a statesman, true to his convictions and resolute in his policy. In his twelve philippics, he urged the Athenians to a war against Philip of Macedonia, of whose purpose to undermine the liberties of Greece, he was con-



DORIC CAPITAL.



CORINTHIAN CAPITAL. (From the  
Choragic Monument of  
Lysicrates.)

vinced quite early. His rival Æschines adhered to the Macedonian king, and when the Athenian people bestowed upon Demosthenes a golden crown, Æschines sought,



VENUS OF MILO.

every building formed a beautiful whole. The chief decoration of their public buildings were the columns, distinguished into three classes, by their capitals: the strong plain Doric, the slender Ionic, with its curled capital, and the richly decorated Corinthian. These were used principally at the entrances of their temples, and in their porches and corridors; but the private dwellings of the Greeks were small and insignificant. The great sculptors were Phidias, Scopas of Paros, Praxiteles of Athens, and Lysippus; and their masterpieces, some of which have been preserved,

in a splendid oration, to procure the repeal of their edict. This gave Demosthenes opportunity,

Æschines, in his great oration "On the Crown," to crush his enemy so completely, that he was obliged to retire from Athens, and to close his days as a teacher of oratory in the island of Rhodes.

§ 74. Architecture, sculpture and painting reached their perfection in the period between Pericles and Alexander the Great. They assumed an importance, and reached a perfection among the Greeks, unknown in any other period or to any other people of human history; they were interwoven with the whole life of the people; the feeling for art was a gift common to all classes, and their encouragement an essential element of public policy. In their architecture, symmetry and harmony so prevailed, that



ATHENIAN YOUTHS RIDING IN PROCESSION. (Frieze of Parthenon. Phidias.)

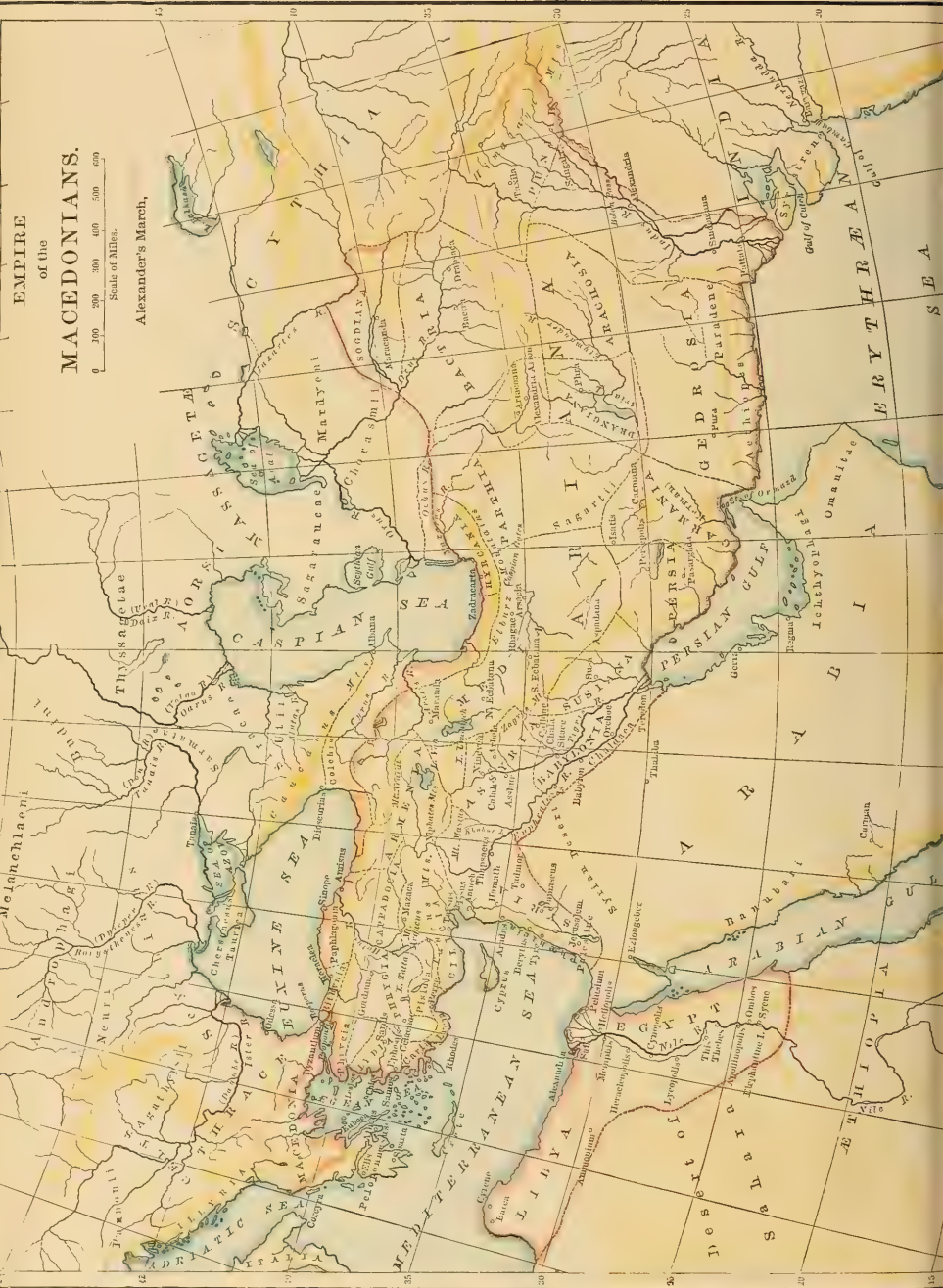




15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100

EMPIRE  
of the  
MACEDONIANS.  
Scale of Miles.  
0 100 200 300 400 500 600

Alexander's March,



are still regarded as unapproachable. The polytheistic service, with its statues and temple decorations, was favorable to the arts, but not more so than the universal artistic instinct of the people. A famous man was usually honored by the erection of a statue, or the placing of his bust upon a pedestal; and the cities vied with each other in adorning their streets and public places with works of art. The beautiful bodies of the Greeks were never distorted by ugly costumes, and their gymnastic exercises gave the sculptors opportunity to study the naked body in every variety of posture. The Apollo Belvedere, the Laocoon group, the Medicean Venus, the Venus of Milo, and countless other statues and reliefs are splendid proofs of Greek genius. The famous painters were Zeuxis, Parrhasius and Apelles. But of their pictures we have none. A few copies of them are to be seen upon Grecian vases, and in some decorations in the remains of ancient buildings. Music, dancing, and dramatic art were likewise cultivated by the Greeks, especially in connection with their religious festivals.

### III. THE MACEDONIAN PERIOD.

§ 75.

#### I. PHILIP OF MACEDONIA (369-336).



O the North of Greece lies the rough mountain land of Macedonia. The inhabitants, thereof, were slightly mixed with Hellenic blood, and had, in the course of time, adopted Greek military cus-

**B. C. 360.**

toms and been admitted to the Olympic games. The kings who dwelt at first in *Ægæ*, and afterward in Pella, traced their origin to the *Heraclides* in *Argos*. The people were warlike, fond of fighting and hunting, of tournaments and carousings. Two years after the death of *Epinionondas*, Philip came to the Macedonian throne, a prince, who united the sagacious skill of a statesman, to the genius of a great soldier. He loved and honored Greek culture, but held firmly to the customs of his people, and even shared in the drunken carousals of the native nobility. And yet he was generous, astute, treacherous and intriguing. He possessed a well-equipped army, eager for fight, and dreaded, especially, because of its peculiar line of battle, called the phalanx.

§ 76. Philip's efforts were directed to the subjugation of the discordant Greek states. His watched-for opportunity came with the sacred wars. The Thebans, eager to absorb the neighboring Phocis, charged before the Amphictyonic council that the Phocians had taken possession of lands belonging to the temple at Delphi. The council condemned the accused to pay a heavy fine, and when they refused, delivered them to the Thebans for punishment. The angry Phocians thereupon seized the temple of Delphi, carried off the treasures therein deposited, purchased with them a great army, and resisted the Thebans successfully for ten years, invading *Bœotia* and even capturing some cities. The Thebans wearied and wasted by the strife, turned for help to Philip of Macedon. He responded at once; conquered Thessaly, and urged his way through



MACEDONIAN COIN.

Thermopylæ into Phocis. Philomelus and Onomarchus, the Phocian leaders, were slain and the entire people subjugated. They were expelled from the Amphictyonic council as an accursed race, and Philip was admitted to their place; their cities were destroyed; the inhabitants carried off into slavery or kept at home as serfs.

§ 77. Philip had already brought the Grecian colonies in Macedonia under his control, and in the neighborhood of Amphipolis, a region rich in gold mines, he had



LAOCOON GROUP, VATICAN.

built the city of Philippi. He conquered the proud Olynthia, and punished it severely by the loss of property and liberty. But he attained his cherished object by the

**B. C. 339-338.** Locrian war. The Locrians, like the Phocians, seized a piece of land belonging to the temple at Delphi and were punished by the Amphictyonic council. They refused to pay the fine. Æschines of Athens then moved in the council that the Macedonian king be entrusted with their punishment. Philip hastened forward



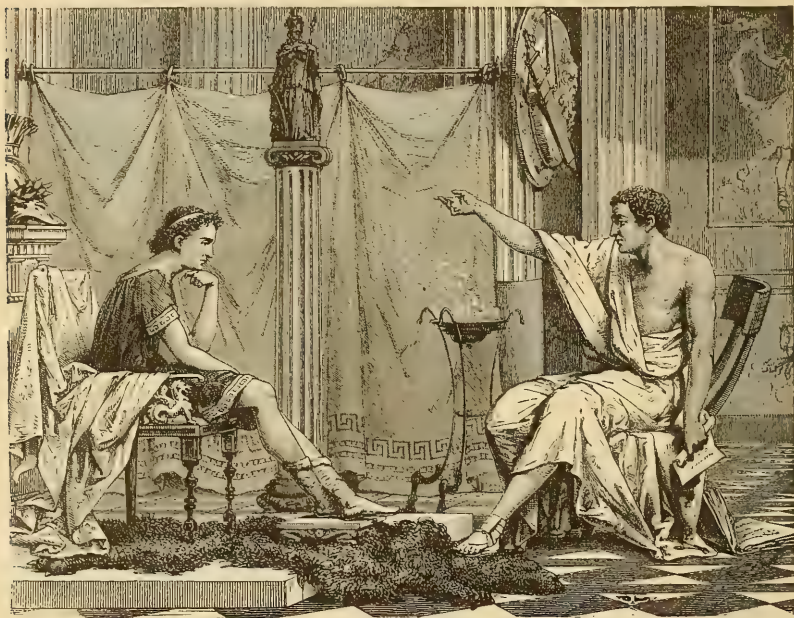


THE MACEDONIAN PHALANX.

(pp. 129.)

with his army, subdued the Locrians, and occupied, quite unexpectedly, the important city Elatea. This act of violence startled the Athenians, and obtained a hearing for Demosthenes. He negotiated an alliance with the Thebans, and induced them to equip a considerable army: but the undisciplined troops, with their incapable leaders, were helpless before the Macedonian phalanx. In spite of the bravery of the "sacred band" of Thebes who perished to a man upon the battle field, Philip won the

**B. C. 338.** battle of Chæronea, which put an end forever to the liberties of Greece. Demosthenes pronounced the funeral oration of the fallen patriots, and the century-old Isocrates died by his own hand, so as not to survive the downfall of Greek freedom.



ARISTOTLE AND ALEXANDER.

Philip, however, treated the Greeks with friendly clemency, so as to reconcile them to Macedonian rule. For he intended, at the head of all the Greek states,

**B. C. 332.** to attack the decaying empire of the Persians. He convened a council at Corinth, proclaimed peace throughout all the land, and established a union under the lead of Macedonia. He had already been named the absolute commander-in-chief, and had designated the number of troops to be furnished by each state, when, at

**B. C. 336.** the wedding-feast of his daughter in Ægæ, he was murdered by a vindictive body-guard or (as some think) at the instigation of his abandoned wife Olympia. The assassin was slain on the spot by the furious warriors.

## 2. ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

§ 78. Philip was succeeded by his large-minded son Alexander, who was twenty-one years old when he became the king of Macedon. His education had been received from Aristotle, the great thinker and investigator; and he remained, throughout his life, a friend and admirer of Grecian art and literature. Directly after his coronation, the Greeks acknowledged him as their commander-in-chief against the Persians. But he was first obliged to expel from his borders the wild tribes that had invaded Macedonia. And suddenly the rumor ran through Greece that Alexander

COIN OF TARSUS. (*Asia Minor.*)

B. C. 335.

had been killed. A wild hope of freedom excited the cities to rebellion. The Thebans

murdered a part of the garrison in their castle; Athenians and Peloponnesians prepared for war. Like a flash Alexander hastened to Thebes, leveled its houses and walls to the ground, and reduced the citizens to slavery. Only the castles, the temples, and the house of the poet Pindar were spared. This terrible judgment alarmed the rest of the Greeks; and the conqueror, soon repenting of his severity, accepted their repentance and submission.

§ 79. In the spring of 334 Alexander marched against Persia. His army was not large, but splendidly officered with men like Clitus, Parmenio, Ptolemy, Antigonus. At the passage of the Hellespont, Alexander was the first to leap to the Asiatic shore; at the field of Troy he ordered games and sacrifices in honor of the heroes of the olden time. Achilles was his chosen model, and Homer his constant companion.

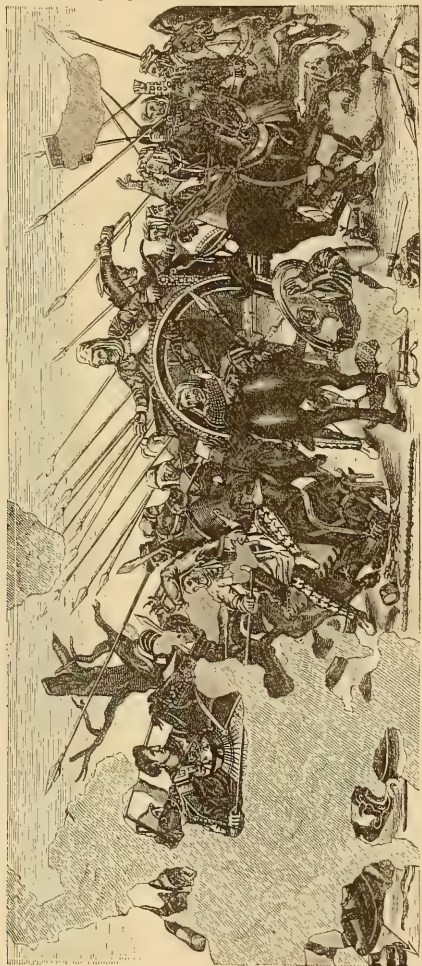
The first encounter took place at the Granicus River, where a superior force of Persians was easily defeated. But the impetuosity of the young king nearly cost him his life; he was saved by the prompt courage of his general Clitus. The western part of Asia Minor was now rapidly subdued. Halicarnassus taken by storm, the other Greek cities submitted willingly, and even greeted the conqueror with expectant enthusiasm. In the city of Gordium he found the ancient wagon of Midas, the pole of which was tied to the yoke by a knot most intricate. "*Whoso unties this knot, shall be the conqueror of Asia,*" ran a well-known oracle. Alexander cut it with a stroke of his sword.

He then marched across the Cilician highlands, and made himself dangerously ill by a bath in the chilly waters of the Cydnus. Philip, his physician, mixed a potion for him, which the king drank eagerly, handing to the astonished doctor as he did so, the letter of Parmenio, his general, in which Philip was falsely accused of intending to poison him.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT. (*Equestrian.*)



§ 80. Darius Codomanus himself now confronted him with a larger army ; but **B. C. 333.** suffered a complete defeat at Issus. The unhappy king, who was worthy of a better fate, fled with the remnants of his army into the interior, while Alexander prepared to subjugate Palestine and Phœnicia, and Parmenio compelled the



BATTLE OF ISSUS. (Fresco in Pompeii.)

rich Damascus to surrender. The booty was immense ; the royal treasure and the royal family fell into the hands of the Macedonians. Darius, bowed down by his misfortunes, offered the king all Western Asia, and the hand of his daughter as the price of peace ; and an enormous ransom for his mother and his wife, the most beautiful woman in Persia. But the son of Philip refused. "If I were Alexander," counseled Parmenio, "I would accept the conditions." "So would I," was the answer, "*if I were Parmenio.*"

§ 81. Palestine and Phœnicia submitted without resistance ; but Tyre, trusting in her strong position, defiantly refused. Thereupon began a seven-months' siege. From the mainland to Island-Tyre, a dam was built, upon which towers were erected. From these the Macedonian soldiers hurled all manner of missiles into the city, while the ships of Alexander assailed it from the sea. The Tyrians, however, baffled his effort by equally cunning expedients, and withstood him with desperate courage. At

**B. C. 332.** last the city was conquered. The surviving inhabitants were led into slavery, and the city given over to destruction. The rich and well-defended frontier city of Gaza, the famous remnant of the Philistines, suffered a like fate. The Macedonian king now

conquered Egypt, and by building the city of Alexandria gave to commerce a new direction. From Memphis he undertook the difficult and dangerous march to the famous oracle temple of Zeus Ammon, situated in the beautiful oasis of Siwah. The



VICTORY OF ALEXANDER ON THE GRANICUS. (*Charles Le Brun.*)



priests of the temple declared him to be the son of their God, which gave him great importance in the eyes of the superstitious Orientals.

§ 82. Alexander found Egypt easy to conquer, so great was the dislike of the ancient population for the Persians. Having established a new government, he



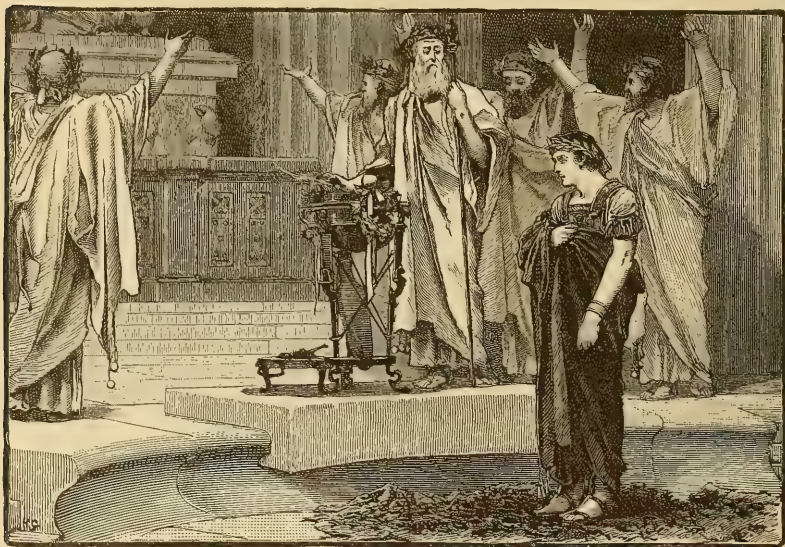
COIN OF TYRE.

marched against Darius, who had meanwhile brought together a great army. Crossing the

**B. C. 331.** Euphrates and the Tigris, he encountered the Persians, not far from the ruins of Nineveh. In the battle of Arbela, with his little army, he defeated the great host of Persians. And Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis, with

their immense treasures, fell into his hands. The existing ruins of the sepulchres of Cyrus and Darius, still bear witness of the splendor of this cradle of the Persian house.

Alexander celebrated his victory with a riotous banquet, at the close of which, he

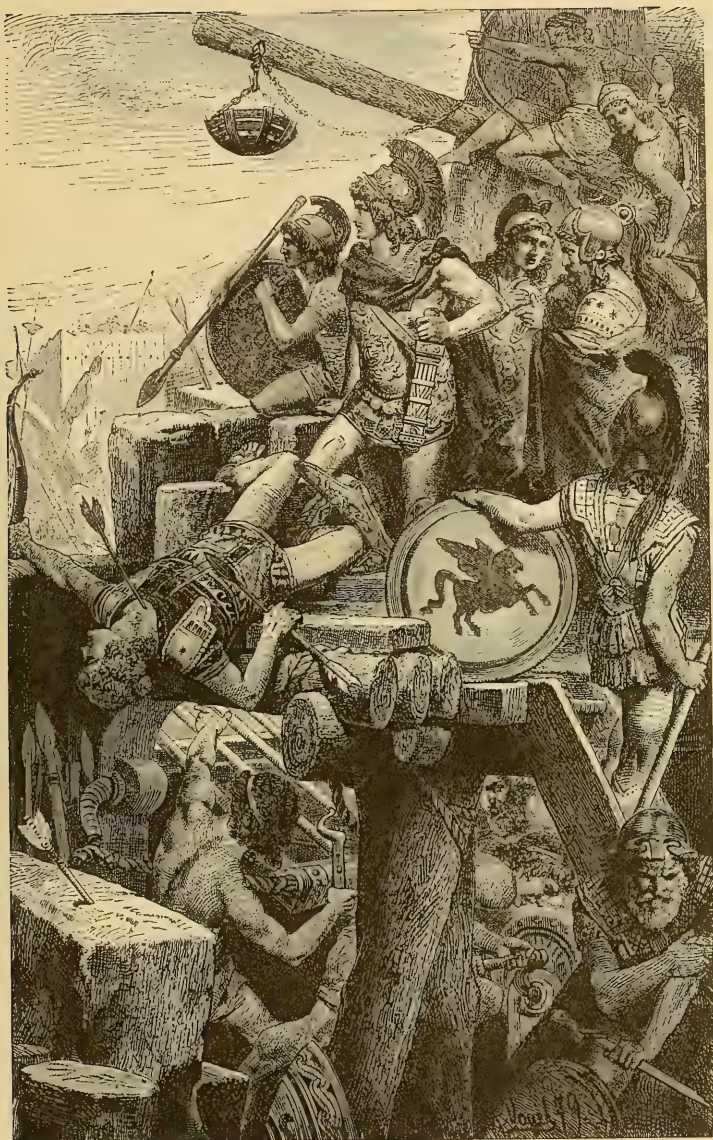


ALEXANDER AT THE TEMPLE OF JUPITER AMMON.

marched at the head of a Bacchanalian procession, and hurled, with his own hands, flaming torches into the splendid buildings of Persepolis, in revenge for the burning of Athens and the desecration of the Hellenic sanctuaries.

When Darius heard that Alexander had passed through the Persian mountains, had conquered Susa "the golden castle" and Persepolis "the high portal," and was on his way to Media, he fled from Ecbatana, his summer residence, into the mountainous





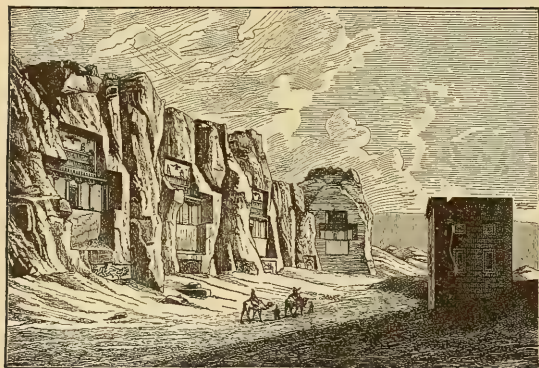
ALEXANDER BEFORE TYRE. (*H. Vogel.*)

(*pp. 135.*)

Bactria, where he was murdered by the traitor Bessus. Alexander bemoaned the fate of his unhappy enemy, defeated and captured the murderer, who had assumed the title of king, and had him nailed to the cross.

§ 83. The snow-covered Hindu mountains were crossed by his daring soldiers, who nearly perished of hunger and fatigue; and, after taking possession of the mountain regions near the Caspian Sea, Alexander undertook to make them accessible by new highways. He was not satisfied with war and conquest merely. He wished to make the wild mountaineers acquainted with the forms of Grecian life, and to adapt them to a new order of political existence. Four new cities each called Alexandria, became centres of the caravan trade, and diffused the Greek language and the Greek civilization throughout the East. In storming a mountain castle he captured the beau-

**B. C. 330.** tiful princess Roxana, the pearl of the Orient, and made her his wife. In Bactria he celebrated his splendid marriage feast; it was to be the sign that the conflict between Greece and Asia was ended. Alexander was now to be known as



GRAVE OF DARIUS, NEAR PERSEPOLIS. (*From Flandin.*)

“the great king,” and he borrowed more and more from the despotic and gaudy customs of the oriental monarchs. He received the Asiatics in royal purple; he found pleasure in their prostration and in their worship; he surrounded himself with Persian staff-bearers and courtiers; he was no longer their conqueror, but their king. This behavior embittered the Macedonian nobles. In their selfishness and ar-

rogance, they murmured at Alexander's treatment of the conquered. At the head of the discontented, stood Parmenio and his brave but violent son Philetas, the captain of the bodyguard. They stirred up in the army the cry for home, that the campaign might

**B. C. 329.** be ended and the booty divided. They formed a conspiracy; but it was discovered. Philetas was condemned to death and pierced through by the lances of his comrades, and to prevent the news from reaching his father, who was in command of Ecbatana and its treasures, two captains were detailed to murder him. They approached the unsuspecting Parmenio, as he was entering the castle-garden of the Median capital, and stabbed him to death. The next year, as Alexander was preparing for a campaign against India, another fit of passion led to the death of Clitus, who had saved the king's life at the battle of Granicus. At a drunken carouse at Maracanda, the flatteries of the Greek sophists so enraged the Macedonian warrior, that he broke forth in violent upbraiding of the king. Alexander seized the lance of one of the

**B. C. 328.** guards, and hurled it at his general, who fell bleeding to the ground.





ALEXANDER DISCOVERS THE DEAD BODY OF DARIUS.

(pp. 137.)



The sobered king then threw himself upon the corpse, and for three days refused all meat and drink in his sleepless grief.

Callisthenes, the nephew of Aristotle, also trifled away by his criticisms the favor of the king. He was cast into chains, and held a prisoner until he died.

§ 84. Alexander kept marching to the East, in order to conquer the wonderful and famous land on the river Indus, in spite of the repeated murmurings of the Macedonian leaders. But the inhabitants of



MEDEAN NOBLE.

He then resumed his march eastward to the Ganges, but the Macedonians were so loud in their complaints, that he reluctantly consented to turn back. Twelve stone altars, on the shore of the river Hyphasis, designated the eastern terminus of his conquering march.

Porus and the other Indian princes, were given back their lands subject to Macedonian authority. A fleet of boats was built for sailing down the Indus, in order to discover the unknown lands of the South, and to open up a commerce between the East and the West. Nearch, the commander of this fleet, sailed along the coast to the Persian gulf, while Alexander himself with the army took the way through the desert. But this undertaking proved disastrous; three-fourths of the army were lost in two months. The soldiers who had defied the sword and the lance in so many battles, succumbed to

**B. C. 325.** the tortures of hunger, and of fatigue, and of thirst in the barren desert, or fell victims to malaria, sunstroke, the choking dust, and the nocturnal frost.

Alexander shared the hardships and dangers of the march, with the meanest of his army, and rewarded the survivors with gifts and festivals as soon as he arrived in the rich oasis city Pura. Thence they marched without difficulty, through Caremania,

But the inhabitants of Northern India, stimulated by their priests, offered him greater resistance than he encountered with the cowardly subjects of the Persian king. In the storming of strong castles, his life was often in great danger, and if the native princes had been united, the Macedonians would have failed in their un-

**B. C. 326.** dertaking. But some of them joined with Alexander against Porus, the mightiest of the princes beyond the Hydaspes (Dschelum). The passage of this river in sight of the enemy, and the battle that followed, in which the brave Porus was taken prisoner, belonged to the greatest martial achievements of antiquity.

Alexander founded a city, Bucephala, in memory of his fallen battle horse; and the city Nicaea, in memory of his victory.



COIN OF ALEXANDER. (Containing Image of Lysimachus).



DEFEAT OF PORUS BY THE MACEDONIANS.

(pp. 139.)



where Nearch united his forces with the main army, after a voyage full of dangers and of marvels.

§ 85. During his absence, the governors and officers of the country had greatly oppressed the people, and Alexander's first care was to punish their infidelity. He then sought to unite the victors and the vanquished into a single nation, and to diffuse every where the culture of the Greeks. He furthered the marriage of his officers and soldiers with the maidens of the country, and himself married a daughter of Darius. A wedding feast of five days took place in Susa, where more than ten thousand Macedonians celebrated the splendid nuptials, which were to be the capstone of his



great plan for the union of Greek and Persian. But this sublime idea of a great empire, with equal rights for all, was incomprehensible to the Macedonians and to the Greeks. When Alexander favored the young men of the Persians, armed them with Macedonian weapons, and gave them places in the royal army, and when he filled up the Macedonian life-guard with Parthian and Iranian knights, the Macedonians became suspicious that the king was seeking to do without them. Irritated and embittered, they broke out

in open rebellion, when the king on the shores of the Tigris expressed his purpose of sending the older soldiers home. With a wild outcry all demanded their dismissal. A few ringleaders were drowned in the Tigris, and the rest were proudly told to go whither they would. They soon surrounded the castle, beseeching pardon and mercy. After a long delay, the king forgave them and sent his old comrades, 10,000 in number, with rich presents and large privileges, back to the land of their fathers.

Alexander soon began to love the oriental mode of life. His court at Babylon, the capital of his empire, was full of splendor. Ambassadors from Greece, Italy and many other lands brought him congratulations, and flattered his achievements. Ban-



quets and festivals succeeded each other without end. But the foundation of a world-empire, with Hellenic forms of life, never left his thoughts. To open up new highways

**B. C. 324.** for commerce he went to Ecbatana. Here he celebrated the great festival of Dionysos, with sacrifices and processions, with chariot races and foot races, with dramatic and artistic contests, with banquets and feasts. Nevertheless the king was quite unhappy. The faithful friend of his youth, Hephestion, who had abandoned himself to the enjoyment of the hour, died suddenly in the flower of his years. It was the prelude to the king's own departure. The funeral celebration, which he appointed in Babylon for his beloved friend, was one of his last acts. A violent fever attacked him and hurried him to the grave, in the midst of his plans to conquer Arabia,

**B. C. 323.** and before he could make arrangements for the succession to his throne. When asked to whom he left his kingdom, he replied, "to the worthiest." His dead body was brought from Babylon to Alexandria for burial. His memory has been kept alive by the poetry, and the story of East and West. His life of heroic achievement and magnificent enterprises, filled the minds of his contemporaries and of posterity with astonishment. And the brevity of his splendid career, which was short as a meteor's flash, has not detracted from the eternal significance of his ideas and achievements.

#### IV. THE ALEXANDRIAN AGE.

##### § 86.

##### a. ALEXANDER'S SUCCESSORS.



ALEXANDER left only one brother, a man of disordered mind, and two infant children, the youngest born after the father's death. His empire fell to pieces as rapidly as it had been acquired. His generals fought each other in bloody and cruel wars, in the course of which the house of Alexander perished utterly, and finally divided his kingdom into three parts, Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt. Perdicas, to whom Alexander had given his signet-ring, at first assumed the dignity of regent; but he was murdered by his own rebellious

**B. C. 321.** army, while engaged in war with Ptolemy the governor of Egypt. Antigonus thereupon acquired the greatest power, having captured and imprisoned

**B. C. 316.** Eumenes, the chief support of Perdicas. He seized the treasures in Susa, and was able to hire so many soldiers that he could defy all the generals and compel them to acknowledge him as regent. But Seleucus of Syria, Ptolemy of Egypt, and Kassander of Macedonia, combined against him and his son Demetrius, who was afterward surnamed Poliorketes, the besieger of cities. The war that followed involved both Asia and Greece. Seleucus

**B. C. 312.** succeeded finally in conquering Babylon and the eastern provinces, but Ptolemy was defeated by Demetrius, in a sea-fight, near the island

**B. C. 306.** of Cyprus. Antigonus now assumed

the title of King, in which he was followed by his rivals; the war was finally ended at



COIN OF PTOLEMY I.

**B. C. 301.** the battle of Ipsus, in Asia Minor, where the octogenarian, Antigonus, lost his life, and his son Demetrius found safety in flight. Seleucus retained Syria, and Egypt fell to the Ptolemies.

*b. The last struggle of Greece. The Achaian League.*



TETRADRACHM OF ANTIOCH.

**B. C. 330.** perished with five thousand of his warriors, in the battle of Megalopolis. The Athenians continued the old quarrels between Aristocrats and Democrats. And when Phocion, with the help of the Macedonians, acquired control for his party, many Democrats, among them Demosthenes, left the city. His enemies threatened to deliver him to the Macedonians. He took refuge in a temple of the Peloponessus, and rather

**B. C. 322.** than fall into the hands of his foes, drained a cup of poison. "Death is a glorious refuge," he cried to the Macedonian partisan, who sought to take him prisoner. "Death protects from shame." His ashes were afterward carried to Athens, where his memory remained in honor. In the year 318 the Democrats obtained the

**B. C. 318.** upper hand, and compelled the aged Phocion to drink the hemlock. Party rage now began to soften; but the love of freedom and of country, as well as civic virtue, disappeared even more rapidly. The arts and the sciences continued to flourish, and Athens remained the centre of civilization; but the greatness of her people was gone forever. Demetrius, the Phalerian,

**B. C. 317-307.** a highly cultivated and luxury-loving statesman, ruled the city for ten years under Macedonian authority; and Demetrius, "the besieger of cities," the handsome, knightly and pleasure-loving son of Antagonus, succeeded him. Their sensuality and luxury corrupted utterly the remnants of civic virtue, and the Athenians became pitiful flatterers and contemptible parasites.



ANTIOCHUS III.

§ 88. But about the middle of the third century the Achaian league was formed,

**B. C. 250.** to which Aratus of Sicyon gave such power and importance, that he attempted the control of all Greece, especially after the accession of Corinth to the union. As general of the league, he sought, by the founding of a confederation, to revive again the national energy and unity. But his success excited the envy of Sparta, at a time when two large-minded kings, Agis the fourth and Kleomenes, were trying to renew her ancient virtue. The landed property of Sparta had fallen into the hands of a few rich families; these ruled the state, choosing the ephors always from their own number. Other citizens were destitute of rights and property, and in debt to the rich. The two kings sought relief by abolishing the office of ephors, making void the debts, and by a new distribution of land and a restoration of the institutions of Lycurgus.

**Agis IV.,**

But Agis was cruelly murdered by his enemies, although Kleomenes **B. C. 241.** was able, by his firmness, to carry out his purposes in Sparta. When

however, the latter attempted to compel the other Peloponnesian states to submit to

**Kleomenes.** Spartan rule, he was defeated by the Achaian league and their Spartan

**B. C. 236-220.** allies, in the battle of Sellasia. He fled to Alexandria, where he and his companions fell by their own hands. Twelve years after his death, Sparta was conquered by the

**B. C. 208.** league and compelled to abolish the institutions of Lycurgus. Her wealthy citizens were murdered or banished, and the ancient city of heroes converted into a den of thieves. Philopæmon, the commander of the league and the conqueror of the

**B. C. 183.** Spartans, in a war against the Messenians, fell into the hands of the enemy, and was compelled to drink poison. With him perished the "last of the Greeks," and the power of the union. The Romans soon conquered the whole country without great difficulty.



COIN OF PTOLEMY II.

### c. *The Ptolemies and Seleucids.*

§ 89. Seleucid and Ptolemy were the most fortunate of Alexander's successors. The first conquered all the land from the Hellespont to India, and founded the Syrian kingdom of the Seleucids. He built the splendid Antioch on the river Orontes, and

Seleucia on the Tigris. These and the forty other cities, which were built by his successors, so diffused Greek life and language in the East, that Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt became the chief seats of culture and commerce; but the heaping up of riches brought in an effeminacy of luxury and lust, the people became indolent and servile, paying their kings with the meanest flattery. Bloody cruelties, the domination of women and favorites, and universal immorality constitute the history of the Syrian kingdom.

**B. C. 224-187.** Antiochus the third called also the great is renowned for his campaign against India, and for his unlucky struggle with the Romans; as the kings became weaker, small kingdoms, like Pergamos in Asia Minor and Parthia at the North were established by enterprising men. Egypt under the Ptolemies had

a like experience; the first three, Soter, Philadelphus, and

† **B. C. 280**



EGYPTIAN PRIEST, AND MAN AND WOMAN OF LOW CASTE.

**Philadelphus.** Euergetes founded a great military and naval power, by means of

† **B. C. 221.** which they acquired territory in all directions; commerce brought wealth, the civil administration was perfected in a high degree. Alex-

**Euergetes,** andria became the seat of international traffic, and the centre of Greek

† **B. C. 221.** art, literature, and culture. The famous museum, with its numerous manuscripts and residences for poets and scholars, was connected with the royal palace; religion consisted of mingled Greek and Egyptian elements; the splendid worship of Serapis and



Isis was blended with the service of the Hellenic gods, but the men who accomplished this were, like the royal family itself, like strangers, Greeks and Jews; hence this culture touched only the service, without ennobling the heart, for it took no root in the popular mind: the court in Alexandria was as famous for its cruelty, its debauchery, and its immorality, as for its splendor, its wealth, and its culture.

*d. The Jews Under the Maccabees.*

§ 90. Judæa was, for a long while, the subject of quarrel between the Seleucids and the Ptolemies. The rulers of Egypt first took possession of the land, and made it



TETRADRACHM OF ANTIOCHUS IV.

tributary; but they did not disturb the ancient institutions, and permitted the high priests, with the council of seventy (or Sanhedrim), to control religious life and domestic affairs. Many Jews settled in Alexandria, where they became wealthy and powerful, but lost gradually the customs, language and faith of their fathers, or blended them with Greek life and thought.

At the instance of the second colony, a number of Alexandrian Jews, (tradition says seventy-two), completed a Greek translation of the Hebrew scriptures, which

**B. C. 284-187.** is known as the Septuagint, and which greatly furthered the spread of Christianity. But the Syrian king, Antiochus the Great, wrested Judæa from the Ptolemies, and Antiochus Epiphanes even plundered the temple treasures in Jerusalem, and determined to abolish Jewish institutions and the worship of Jehovah. His attempts to force Greek paganism upon the Jews, provoked a desperate resistance, and this led to cruel persecution. At last the people, in their desperation, rose against their tormentors, under the lead of the high priest Mattathias, and his five heroic sons. The eldest

† **B. C. 160.** son, Judas Maccabæus, conquered peace, in which the Syrians permitted the re-establishment of the Jewish worship. His

† **B. C. 135.** brother Simon freed Judæa from Syrian rule, and as priest and prince, conducted affairs with righteousness and wisdom. His suc-



SHEKEL OF SIMON MACCABEUS.

cessors conquered the Edomites, but party hatred and domestic quarrels soon weakened the power of the people. The whole nation was divided between the Sadducees and the Pharisees. Both parties held to the Mosaic law, but were wide apart in their political and their social life, and in their religious ideas. The Pharisees, as worshippers of tradition, laid great stress upon the observance of minute requirements and external usages. This led to hypocrisy and sham-holiness: the Sadducees, who were for the most part rich and aristocratic, sought to reconcile the Mosaic system with Greek life and thought. A third sect, the Essenes, lived in a



HEBREW SHEKEL.

fraternity, held their goods in common and served God by separating from the world, by penitence and works of love. The hostility of these parties,

and the resulting weakness of the people, brought them finally under Roman rule. The last of the Maccabean family was murdered by Herod the Great, a man of

**Herod, B. C. 30** astonishing gifts and astonishing crimes. Under the protection of Rome, he ruled over Judæa for thirty-six years. The Jews hated him bitterly; so to obtain their favor he rebuilt the temple of Solomon in great splendor. At the last his suspicions made of him a bloody monster, the murderer of his beautiful and beloved Mariamne, and of his own children. And the last notice of him in Holy

writ shows him seeking the life of the infant Jesus.

*e. Culture and Intellectual Life in the Alexandrian Age.*

§ 91. The conquests of Alexander and of his successors, carried Greek culture **Theocritos, far to the East, and into the larger part of the ancient world. Commerce and the intercourse of nations were extended, and civilization greatly furthered. But the intellectual life did not keep pace with the spread of civilization. In poetry nothing of importance appeared, except the Idylls of Theocritos, and a few dramatic poems which have been lost. History and oratory fell far**

**Euclid, behind the nobler productions of the earlier time. But erudite studies and practical sciences flourished greatly. Learned critics and grammarians arranged and explained the earlier Greek writings. Natural science and mathematics, geography and astronomy, which hitherto were in their rudiments, were now perfected. Euclid composed his manual of geometry. Eratosthenes and Hipparchus de-**

**† B. C. 212. veloped astronomy. Archimedes, of Syracuse, acquired immortal renown, by his discoveries in mechanics and physics; and Hippocrates laid the foundations of medical science. But the chief study was philosophy. For the Pagan religion gave no peace to the soul and no strength for human life. Men turned therefore to the schools of philosophy founded by Plato and Aristotle. Among these, the Stoics and the Epicureans were the most famous. Socrates had taught that happiness was the true end of life. Antisthenes, his pupil, believed that the surest way to obtain happiness, was to renounce all pleasures, and accordingly taught that contentment was the highest goal of human effort. His pupil, Diogenes, who lived in a cask, gave up all the enjoyments of life, and practiced a heroism of renunciation, which excited the admiration of the great Alexander. This school was called the cynical school, originally from the place where Antisthenes taught. Diogenes was humorously called "the dog," because of the wretched life that he led, and because his indifference to culture and refinement seemed better fitted for a dog, than for a man. This doctrine of the Cynics was ennobled in the Stoic philosophy, of which Zeno, a contemporary of Alexander, was the teacher. According to the doctrine that he delivered in the Stoa at Athens, man arrives at happiness only by enduring all the changing phases of life, joy, and pain, fortune and misfortune, with equanimity. Whatever happens is of necessity, and according to the highest law; to bear it tranquilly, therefore, is the noblest wisdom and the beginning of peace. Au-**



A HALF SHEKEL.



MITES OF HEROD.

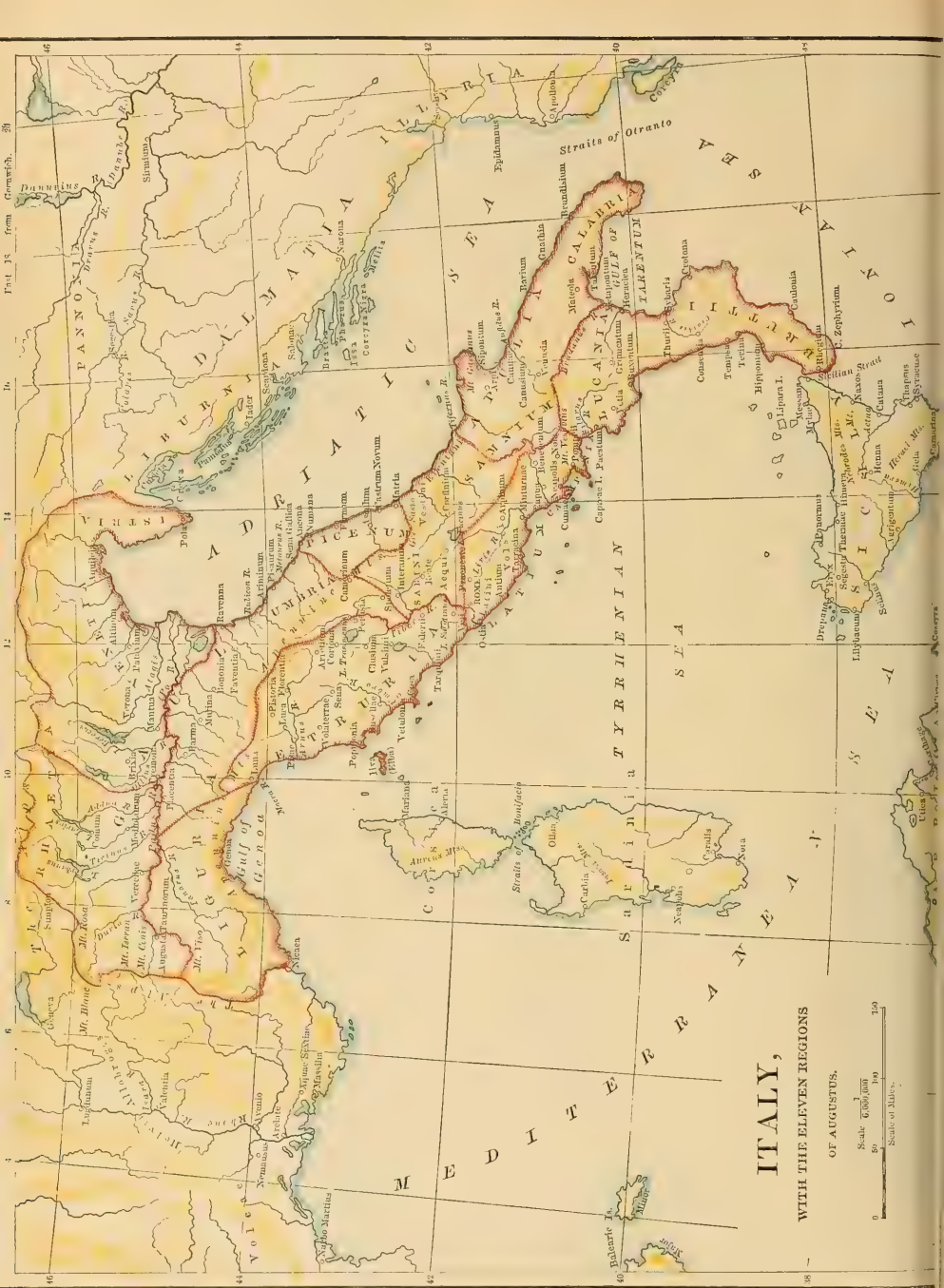
other pupil of Socrates, Aristippus of Cyrene, taught an opposite doctrine. Life consists, he said, in learning to blend discreetly the pleasures of sense and of intellect. His pupil, Epicurus, framed this art of enjoyment into a system of doctrine that presented rational pleasure as the aim and purpose of human life. His followers carried his doctrine much further. Epicurus taught that happiness was to be found in a freedom from pain, and from circumstances that disturbed contentment. But his disciples taught that the satisfaction of sensual lust was the chief aim of life, and thus converted his philosophy into a doctrine of carnal pleasure and sensual delight.



STOIC PHILOSOPHER.





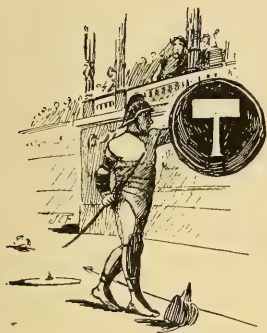




## C. ROME.

§ 92.

### THE RACES AND CUSTOMS OF OLD ITALY.



THE beautiful peninsula bounded on the north by the majestic Alps, traversed from north to south by the Apennines, and surrounded on the east and south and west by the Mediterranean Sea, was inhabited in the earliest times by many tribes of different blood. Upper Italy on both banks of the Po (Padus) was the home of Gallic races, who, divided into many branches and communities, possessed numerous cities both in the fertile plains and along the sea-coast.

Middle Italy was the dwelling-place of several small tribes, some of which were counted aboriginal and others of which had migrated from afar. To the latter belonged the Etruscans, to the former the Sabelli. The Sabelli were split up into different warlike and freedom loving tribes and of these the Samnites, Sabines and Marsians were the most important. The Oscans were of the same blood and to these belonged the Volscians on the sea-coast, the Æequi on the left bank of the Anio and the Hernici on the highlands of Algidus. The Latins, a sturdy agricultural people in the "broad plain" south of the mountain river Tiber were another old Italian race. But in their intercourse with Cumæ and other colonies of Lower Italy, the Latins had absorbed the mythical ideas of the Greeks and other elements of culture; witness the story that Æneas, after the destruction of Troy, came to Latium with a band of Trojan heroes and married the daughter of the Latin king.

Lower Italy was covered along both coasts with Greek colonial cities, while Samnites, Campanians, and Lucanians inhabited the inland districts, where they carried on continual war with each other.

Campania, with its vineyards and cornfields, belongs to the most beautiful and fertile regions of the earth, and there the Romans built a multitude of splendid country houses.



The Etruscans were the most remarkable of the inhabitants of Middle Italy. They were a confederation of twelve independent cities, of which Cære, Tarquinii and Perugia, near the Trasimenian lake, and Clusium and Veii are best known. The



FLIGHT OF ÆNEAS WITH ANCHISES CARRYING THE LARES FROM TROY.

single cities were governed by a nobility of priests. These nobles (Lucomones) elected in war times a federal head to whom they gave an ivory chair, a purple toga, and an escort of twelve lictors with bundles of rods and axes, such as were given in after times to the Roman Consuls. They were a people who revered the Gods; their priests alone were in the possession of the astronomical and natural science upon which rested their worship of the twelve supernal and infernal Gods. The High Priest officiated at the sacrifice of animals with which were united predictions derived from the inspection of their entrails (haruspices). They were skilled in the casting of bronze, in pottery and in metal work of all kinds; existing ruins of temples, dikes, roads, bridges bear witness of their genius for building. Etruscan vases, porcelain vessels decorated with paintings which have been discovered in large numbers, furnish striking proof of their industry and artistic feeling. But the oppressive aristocracy which robbed the artisan and the peasant of freedom and enthusiasm soon arrested this promising Etruscan culture.

Sabines, Samnites and Sabelli led a simple life in their poorly fortified homes. They loved their herds and their fields; they loved war also and counted freedom their greatest good. From time to time they vowed to the Gods a "sacred spring-tide." All the children and all cattle born in this holy year belonged to the Gods, chiefly to Mars. The cattle were either sacrificed or set free at once, but the children when they reached a certain age were driven forth to conquer for themselves a home.

The Latins dwelt in thirty states; these formed a league of which Alba Longa



HARUSPEX OFFICIATING.



was the capital. Agriculture and civil liberty flourished among them; their religion was based upon nature-worship and closely connected with the tilling of the soil. To their deities belonged Saturn, the God of seedtime and his wife Ops, the Goddess of plenty; Vesta also, the venerable Goddess of the hearth, whose pure, sacred flame in the round temple of the Forum was kept always burning by the vigilance of six vestal virgins. The federal assemblies of the Latin union were held in a grove on the Albanian mountain.



OPS.

## I. ROME UNDER THE RULE OF KINGS AND PATRICIANS.

### § 93.

#### 1. THE KINGS (753—509.)



ING NUMITOR of Alba Longa, so runs the ancient story, was a descendant of the Trojan Æneas. He was deprived of his throne by his brother Amulius, and his daughter Rhea Silvia was consecrated to Vesta, so that she would remain unmarried and childless. When, however, she bore to Mars, the god of war, the twins Romulus and Remus, the uncle commanded the children to be exposed on the shores of the Tiber, where they were suckled by a wolf and

found by a shepherd, by whom they were brought up. By accident they learned of their origin and their grandfather's fate to whom they restored his throne; then they erected Rome in memory of their rescue, on the left bank of the Tiber on the Palatine Hill. Hardly were the walls of the city erected before they were stained with the blood of Remus, who was killed by his brother.

CAPITOLINE WOLF. (*Bronze Statue.*)

But Rome—such is the latest view—originated like Athens (§. 32) in the union

**B. C. 753.** of independent communities; three tribes of Latin and Sabine blood united for defence and commercial advantage in the building of a finely located capitol.

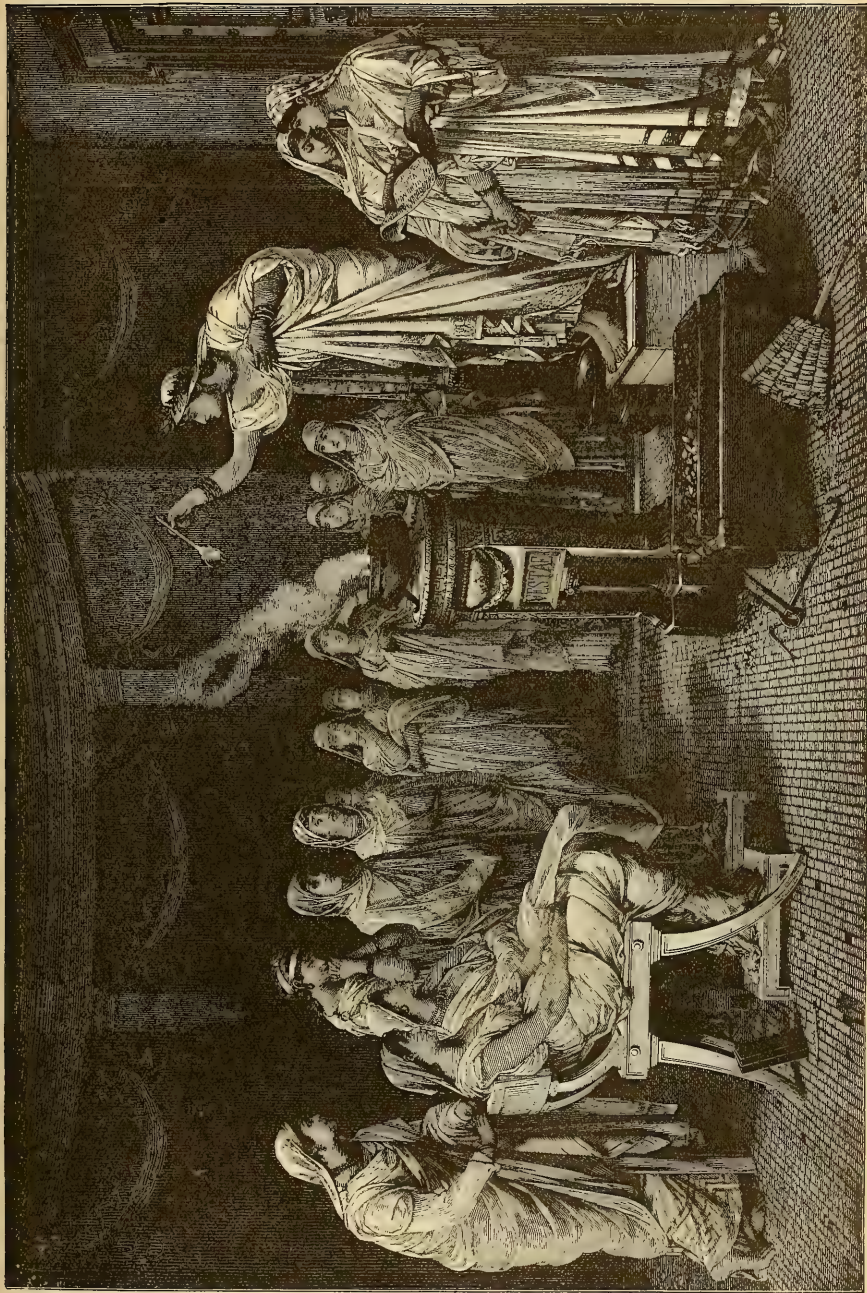
§ 94. When the city had been founded, the legend continues, Romulus proclaimed it a city of refuge for fugitives and thus attracted inhabitants. But as these

**Romulus**

**B. C. 730.**

had no wives, and the neighboring tribes refused to give them their daughters, he arranged a series of games to which he invited the surrounding peoples. When now all eyes were fixed upon the contestants, the Romans at a given signal rushed upon the virgins present and carried them into the city. This rape of the Sabine women provoked a war with the Sabines. Both sides were drawn up in battle-array when the kidnapped women rushed between them, their hair dishevelled and their raiment torn, and by declaring that they would share the fate of the Romans, allayed the strife. A treaty was made, according to which the Sabines of the Capitoline hill united to form one community, with the Latins of the Palatine; the





SCHOOL OF THE VESTAL VIRGINS. (*Hector LeRoux.*)

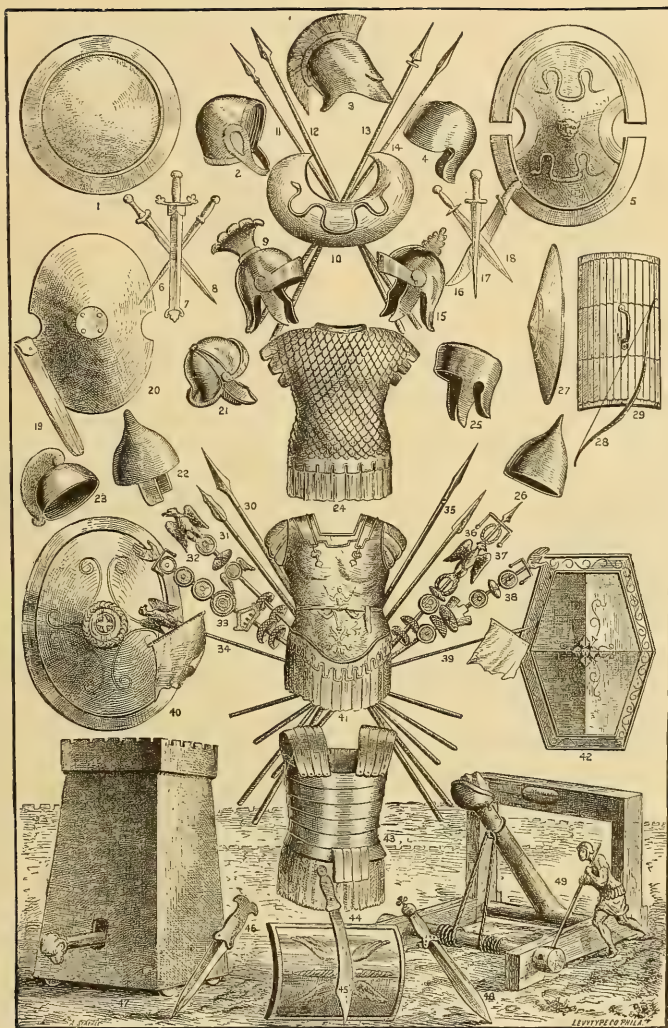
Sabine King Titus Tatius should rule jointly with Romulus, and after their death, a Latin and a Sabine should be chosen alternately by the Senate and the choice ratified in the assembly of the people. Some time after this, an Etruscan settlement on the



RAPE OF THE SABINE WOMEN.

Cælian hill was incorporated into the Roman commonwealth. Romulus vanished from earth, in a manner unknown and was worshiped as a God under the name Quirinus, and after this the citizens of Rome were called also Quirites.





# ANCIENT ARMS AND ARMOR.

1. Shield of Macedonian Hypaspist.
2. Early Greek Helmet.
3. Later " "
4. Early " "
5. Greek Shield.
6. Etruscan Sword.
7. Persian " "
8. Etruscan " "
9. Roman Helmet.
10. Breast Shield.
11. 12, 13, 14. Greek Lances.
15. Roman Helmet.
16. Greek Sword.

17. Greek Dagger.
18. " Double-edged Sword.
19. Persian Scabbard.
20. Etruscan Shield.
21. Roman Helmet.
- 22, 23. Persian Helmets.
24. Roman Armor.
25. " Helmet.
26. Persian " "
27. " Shield.
28. " Bow.
29. " Shield.
- 30, 31. Roman Lances.

- 32, 33, 34. Roman Field Standards.
- 35, 36. Roman Lances.
- 37, 38, 39. Roman Field Standards.
40. Roman Shield.
41. " Armor.
42. " Shield.
43. " Armor.
44. " Scutum.
- 45, 46. " Falchions.
47. Battering Ram and Tower.
48. Roman Falchion.
49. Ballista.



§ 95. After the warlike Romulus came an interregnum and then the wise Sabine, *Numa Pompilius* Numa Pompilius, who organized the new state with laws and religious institutions. He founded sanctuaries, increased the number of priests and gave rules for sacrifices and predictions. Two-faced Janus, the God of all beginnings in space and time was honored with a temple at the entrance of the Forum, the gates of which were open during war and closed during peace.

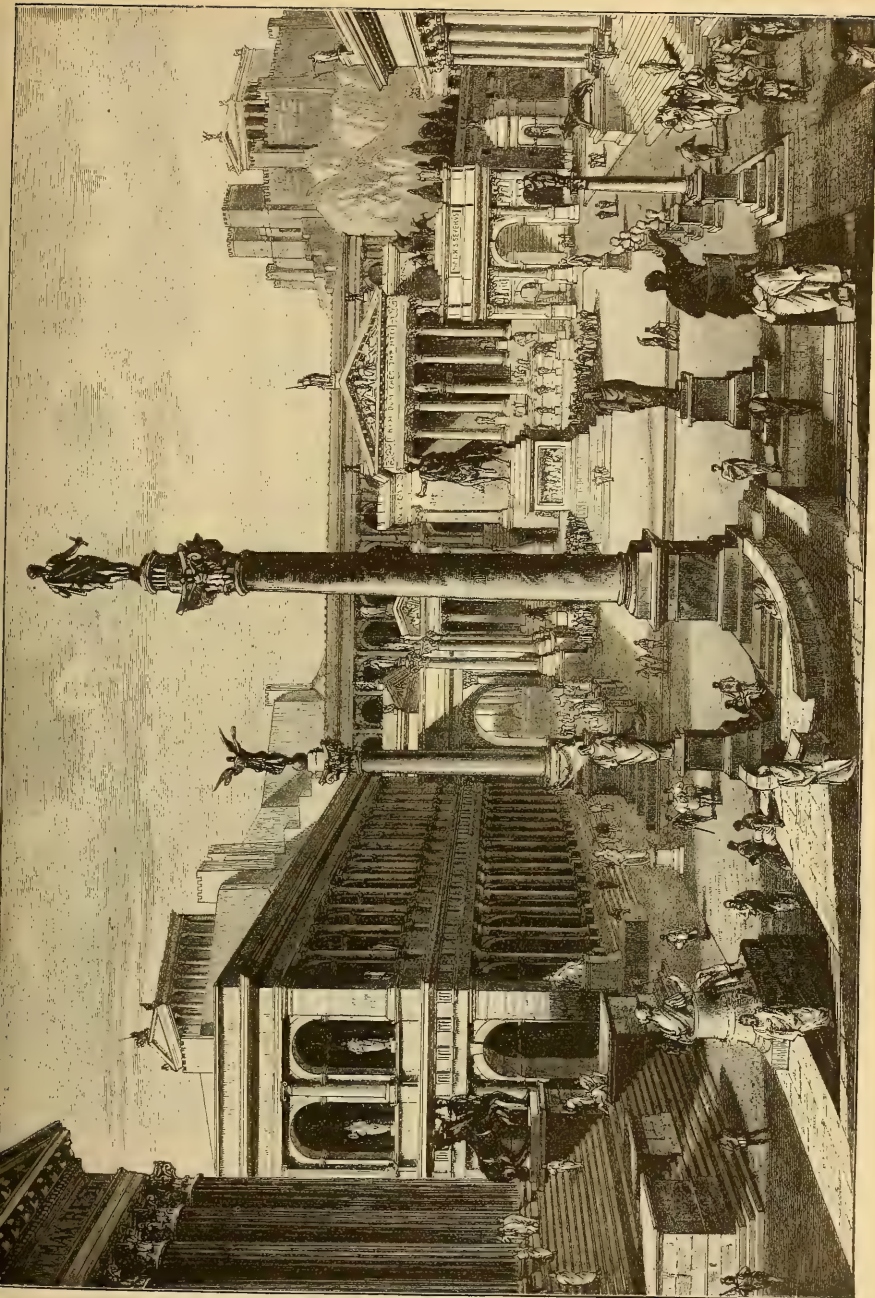
Like the Greeks who had their laws confirmed by divine utterance, Numa Pompilius declared that he had received his religious ordinances from the Nymph Egeria, whose sacred grove lay to the south of Rome.

§ 96. The next two kings, the Latin Tullus Hostilius and the Sabine Ancus Marcus extended the territory of the little state by lucky wars until *about B. C. 650*. four more hills were united to the three already named; hence the *Ancus Marcius* name of the city of seven hills. Tullus Hostilius waged war with *about B. C. 635*. Alba Longa. The armies confronted each other when it was agreed to decide the fate of the two cities by a duel of champions. Three brothers were chosen on each side, the Horatii and the Curatii. Two of the Roman champions had fallen already, when the victory was won for them by the cunning



THE HORATII GOING FORTH TO BATTLE. (David.)

and courage of the remaining brother. All three of the Curatii were wounded, but the Roman champion was as yet unharmed. The latter fled, pursued by each of the Curatii, who, weakened by their wounds, could not keep together. Turning upon the foremost one, the Roman slew him before the others could assist him. Then attacking and overpowering the second of them, the fight was his. For the third of the Curatii could hardly hold his shield; he fell at the first blow and with him the independence of Alba Longa. The city was destroyed soon afterwards and its inhabitants transferred to Rome. Other cities of the neighborhood met the same



TEMPLE OF DIOSCURI.

BASILICA JULIA.

ARCH OF TIBERIUS.

ROMAN FORUM.

TEMPLE OF SATURN.

ROSTRA OF TEMPLE OF CÆSAR.

TEMPLE OF VESPASIAN.

fate under Ancus Marcius. The conquered citizens were transported to Rome, where they received dwelling places and a small property, but were not allowed to share in the privileges of the older settlers. The latter were called Patricians, the new-comers Plebeians. They had personal liberty which distinguished them from the clients or dependents of the Patricians. These clients could not appear personally in the courts; their patron appeared for them, and for this protection they must wait upon him as their lord. In the course of time the clients and all non-citizens were merged with the plebeians. The conquered communities that were not transported to Rome forfeited one third of their fields; this was converted into peasant farms for the Romans, and thus the communal land of Rome was increased enormously. Ancus Marcius built also the harbor-city Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber.

§ 97. The three last kings Tarquinius the elder (Priscus), Servius Tullius and  
**Tarquinius Priscus about B. C. 600.** Tarquinius, the proud (Superbus) belonged, according to tradition, to the Etruscan race; and the tradition is confirmed by the character of their buildings and of the customs that they brought to Rome.  
**Servius Tullius about B. C. 550.** The elder Tarquin laid the foundations for the enormous Capitol, which his son Tarquin the Proud completed according to his father's plan. The building consisted of the tower and the splendid temple dedicated to the three highest Etruscan deities, Jupiter, Juno and Minerva. The same king constructed the *cloaca maxima*, subterranean canals built of enormous stone blocks, the *circus maximus* and the great market-place or Forum. Tarquin was murdered by the sons of his predecessor and succeeded by his son-in-law, Servius Tullius, who reorganized the state. The Plebeians of the city and vicinity were first divided into thirty tribes, each having its own president and assembly. In the second place he divided the whole population, according to their wealth, into five classes; and these into 193 centuries (or hundreds) for taxing, voting and military purposes. After the eighty centuries of the first-class to which the patricians belonged had voted, came the eighteen centuries of knights. Thus the richer citizens acquired greater power, but were bound on the other hand to serve as heavy-armed soldiers without pay, and their taxes were heavier. A sixth class, the Proletariat, the unpropertied crowd was exempt from taxation and military service but also powerless in political affairs. These changes, which tended to merge the Patricians with the richer Plebeians, and to establish the kingdom upon a broader basis of popular power drew upon Servius Tullius the hatred of the Patricians and with their help he was murdered by his son-in-law Tarquinius Superbus. The transition of power from Servius Tullius to Tarquinius Superbus is represented in legend



THE ELDER BRUTUS.

tion of power from Servius Tullius to Tarquinius Superbus is represented in legend



as tragical and cruel. *Via Scelerata* (Wicked Way) is the well-known name of the street through which the wife of Tarquin drove furiously over the body of her murdered father.

§ 98. Tarquin the Proud extended the frontier of the State by successful wars *Tarquinus* with the Latins, whom he united in a league under the authority of *Superbus* Rome. He completed the Capitol and deposited there the collection *B. C. 534-509.* of ancient oracles, the Sibylline books; he planted the first colonies in the land of the Volscians, in order to extend still further the dominion of Rome. Nevertheless he excited the hatred of the patricians, when he sought to increase his limited authority as king. His violence to the Senate and the Patricians, together with the heavy taxes and forced contributions exacted from the Plebeians, produced a general discontent, which broke into rebellion when the Romans learned of the outrage upon the virtuous Lucrezia, committed by one of the king's sons. Two relatives of the royal family, L. Tarquinius Collatinus and Junius Brutus took an oath over the corpse of the murdered Lucrezia (who had killed herself in the desperation of shame) to avenge her death. Thereupon they called the people to freedom, and the destruction of tyrannical monarchy. The king apprised of the rebellion raised the siege of the maritime city of Ardea, a city built upon a rock, and hurried with



BRUTUS CONDEMNING HIS SONS TO DEATH.

his army to Rome; he found the gates closed against him, the people having deposed him in full assembly. His army thereupon deserted him and with his sons he went into exile. As in Greek story so in Roman legend the overthrow of tyranny and the establishment of republican government are richly embellished with poetic fiction and

the catastrophe of Tarquin was of course represented as the consequence of impious crimes on the part of the Etruscan dynasty. The expulsion of the Kings was perhaps a revolutionary uprising of Latin and Sabine elements against Etruscan rule.

## 2. ROME AS A REPUBLIC UNDER THE PATRICIANS.

### a. *Horatius Cocles, Tribunes of the Plebs, Coriolanus.*

§ 99. THE Senate now possessed supreme authority in Rome. It confirmed the laws that were adopted in the assemblies of the people upon its suggestion; it nominated the officers that the people elected. Instead of a King, two consuls who were chosen annually, ruled the State, declared justice, and commanded the army. The calendar designated each year by the ruling consuls. The name of King disappeared except in the case of the King of sacrifices, who under the oversight of the senate managed all affairs of ritual and religion. "The Gods must not go without their wonted mediator." Only a Patrician could fill this and the other offices. The young commonwealth was destined to undergo many struggles, within and without, and the story of them abounds in striking legends.



MUCIUS SCAEVOLA BEFORE PORSENNA. (*H. Vogel.*)

During the consulate of Brutus and Collatinus, a number of young patricians formed a conspiracy to restore the exiled royal family. When this was discovered the stern Brutus condemned the guilty to death, although among them were his own two sons. From without the Etruscan King Lars Porsenna, whose help had been implored by Tarquin, besieged the Janiculum hill on the right bank of the Tiber. The

Romans sought to dislodge him but were driven back and saved only by the bravery of Horatius Cocles who defended the wooden-bridge across the Tiber. When the Romans had hewn down the bridge Horatius sprang in full armor into the river and swam to the opposite shore. The republic erected a statue of him and gave him all the land he could mark out with a plough in a single day. Another Roman, Mucius Scævola entered the Etruscan camp, intending to murder the king. Knowing the language, he was able to reach the royal tent. But by mistake he stabbed a splendidly attired servant, instead of the king. Thereupon Porsenna sought by threats to compel him to confess, but Mucius thrust his right hand into an adjacent sacrificial flame as proof that he feared neither pain nor death. Hence the name Scævola (left-hand). Startled by these evidences of bravery and patriotism, Porsenna made peace at once and hastened home. Yet the Romans were compelled to give up one-third of

**B. C. 507.** their territory and to furnish hostages. The people of Veii and the Latin union also made war upon Rome in behalf of the Tarquins. In this war Brutus the founder of the Commonwealth and Aruns Tarquinius met and killed each other.

In this war too the Romans appointed for the first time

**B. C. 499.** a dictator, who outranked the consuls and possessed absolute authority in the city and in the field. Dictators were named for six months only and when the danger was over laid down their extraordinary office. The appointment was made by the Consul in the hour of midnight, amid solemn religious ceremonies.

§ 100. Tarquin, unable to regain his royal dignity betook himself to Cumæ where he died. The state was

**B. C. 495.** now in the hands of the Patricians, who no longer fearing the return of the royal family ceased to conciliate the Plebeians and oppressed them by the severest debtor laws. The Plebeians were required to pay heavy ground rents for their little properties and to serve in the army without pay, furnishing their own equipments. While they were on a campaign, their fields were untilled. Bad harvests produced poverty, and to escape impending misery they borrowed money of the rich Patricians at eight and ten per cent. Unable to pay promptly, they became the property of the creditors, who sold them and their children as slaves, or kept them on their own estates as bondsmen. As there was no law to protect the unfortunate debtor, the Plebeians emigrated to the sacred mountain five miles from Rome, intending to found a

**B. C. 494.** new city. The Patricians sent Menenius



CORIOLANUS.

Agrippa to them, to persuade them to return. Agrippa told them the fable of the belly and its members, how by their strife the whole body was endangered, and he promised them relief. The Plebeians were coaxed back, and obtained at first five, and afterwards ten tribunes or protectors. These while in office were sacred and inviola-



ble; they could forbid the execution of all senate-decrees and consular edicts that seemed to injure the welfare of the Plebs, and if this failed they could suspend the collection of taxes. The Roman people regarded always with pride this bloodless secession. Soon afterwards a famine broke out in Rome, and when finally ships laden with corn arrived from Sicily, the proud Patrician Coriolanus moved in the Senate that none should be distributed to the Plebeians from the public store-houses until they had consented to abolish the tribunes. The Plebeians thereupon placed their ban upon him in the great assembly and compelled him to fly. Thirsting for revenge he persuaded the Volscians to follow him in an attack upon Rome. Devastating all before them, they marched to the twenty fifth mile stone, when the mother and sister of Coriolanus came out to intercede for the city, and induced him to withdraw. The

**B. C. 491.** angry Volscians are said to have killed him; but the captured cities they retained.

*b. The Fabians, Cincinnatus, the Decemvirs.*

§ 101. These quarrels of Patrician and Plebeian so weakened Rome that her enemies took one territory after the other from her control. The Plebeians, who had won the former battles, showed no disposition to shed their blood, in order to make their oppressors richer and mightier. They sometimes even suffered themselves to be defeated, when a cruel Patrician was their leader. This happened in a war against the Veii, where one of the Fabii commanded. And the shame of this event so changed the disposition of that family, that they took up the cause of the Plebeians, and then

**B. C. 472.** marched out with them against Veii. They came back from many campaigns victorious and loaded with booty, but returning again to attack the enemy, they were so thoroughly defeated, that only one survived the destruction of his race. As the Veii preyed upon the Roman territory from the North, so the Volsci and the Æqui invaded it from the South. The latter, who occupied territory reaching almost to Rome, attacked the Romans at Mt. Algidus with such success, that these would have been taken into captivity, but for Cincinnatus. For when the Senate learned of the danger of the army, Cincinnatus was named Dictator. The great Patrician had become so poor, through various misfortunes, that he possessed only a small property

**B. C. 458.** on the left bank of the Tiber. He was plowing in his field when the call of the Senate reached him. He placed himself at the head of the Roman youth, hastened to the scene of danger, and surrounded the enemy in the night. The Æqui were forced to surrender their arms, their baggage, their horses, and their beasts of burden, and to pass under the yoke formed of three spears.

§ 102. Bitter quarrels broke out between Plebeian and Patrician about equality of rights. The Plebeians demanded agrarian laws, a written code, and a share in the offices.

The Roman commonwealth was in possession of great tracts of land, the use of which was given to the Patricians, on condition that they paid a tenth of the produce into the state treasury, and in addition, a sum of money for the shepherds on the pasture lands. But the Patricians came to look upon this as their own property, cultivated it through their clients or slaves, paying neither the tenth part of the produce nor the wages of the shepherds. From time to time the Plebeians demanded land laws,

whereby they also could obtain a part of the public land. But their demands were always stoutly resisted. The consul, Spurius Cassius, a meritorious and famous man,

**B. C. 486.** who offered the first land law, was hurled from the Tarpeian rock, and his house reduced to ashes.

§ 103. The administration of justice was exclusively in the hands of the Patricians. Their judgments rested upon traditions and unwritten customs, and were often arbitrary and unjust. The Plebeians consequently demanded fixed and written laws. After a stubborn resistance on the part of the Patricians, the tribunes of the Plebeians succeeded in sending ambassadors to Southern Italy and to Athens to study their laws,



THE DEAD VIRGINIA. (*H. Vogel.*)

and to select from them those that seemed adapted to the conditions of Rome. Upon their return, both classes agreed that all officers should give up their places, and that ten Patricians should be given absolute authority, and charged with the formation of a new code. These (Decemvirs) performed their task with great ability, and their

**B. C. 451-450.** laws were received with such applause by the assembly of the people, that the Decemvirs were appointed for a second year, so that their work might be perfected. But the reappointed Decemvirs now abused their unlimited power. During the second year of their dominion they fined, imprisoned, exiled, and executed so many of the Plebeians as to draw down upon them a bitter hatred. Siccius Dentatus, an old hero of the people, was murdered at their command, and at the close

of the second year they continued themselves in office, without the authority of the assembly. But the popular hatred first broke forth when Appius Claudius, one of the most powerful of these Decemvirs, claimed the beautiful Virginia as his slave. She was the daughter of Virginius, a leader of the Plebeians, and the bride of a former tribune, Lucius Icilius. In the midst of a great crowd Claudius heard the case in the Forum. One of his clients declared that Virginia was his escaped bond-maid. Hardly

**B. C. 449.** had the wicked judge declared in his client's favor, when the father rushed to his daughter, and drove a dagger through her heart. The people surrounded the dead body of the beautiful virgin, the Plebeian army marched into the city and camped on the Aventine Hill, and demanded, with threats, the banishment of the Decemvirs and a return to the old order. When the Senate and the Decemvirs hesitated, the people were advised by an old tribune to do as their fathers did, and abandon the city. Immediately the armed men formed in line, and marched through the city and to the gate; men and women, old and young, followed in their train. Their departure broke the stubbornness of the Patricians. The Decemvirs were compelled to abdicate. Appius Claudius killed himself in prison, one of them was executed, and the rest were banished. But the laws of the twelve tables remained in force, and became the basis of the Roman code.

§ 104. The Plebeians compelled, soon afterward, another concession. Marriages

**B. C. 445.** between Patrician and Plebeian were legalized, and the children of such marriages protected in their rights. But when the Plebeians demanded a share in the consulate, the Patricians declared that they would rather abolish the office

**B. C. 443.** entirely. This led to the creation of military Tribunes with consular power. These were commanders of the army and chief magistrates, chosen by each of the two classes. Occasionally the Patricians were strong enough to prevent the election of Plebeian consular tribunes. And sometimes they were bold enough to elect consuls. But this arrangement lasted, notwithstanding these infractions, for nearly a hundred years. To mollify the Patricians two Censors were appointed, whose duty it was to make out the census list, in which all Roman citizens were designated, according to wealth and rank, as Senators, Knights, or Burgesses. They were also charged with the building of temples, streets and bridges, and with the oversight of public morals. Breaches of decency and of the public peace they punished with disfranchisement and loss of rank.

*c. The Taking of Rome by the Gauls and the Licinian Laws. (389-366.)*

§ 105. By a new arrangement, the citizen soldier now received pay during a campaign, and the troops were able therefore to stay longer in the field. As a consequence, the Romans extended their territory in the South, and under Camillus conquered the

**B. C. 396.** Etruscan city of Veii, whose inhabitants were either slain or carried into captivity. This was a death blow to the power of Etruria. The haughty commander became unpopular, through his ostentatious triumph and his unequal distribution of the booty. The Tribunes of the people called him to account, but rather than appear before them, he went into voluntary exile, just at the moment when the city most needed him.

§ 106. For at this time the Gauls crossed the Apennines, and besieged the Etruscan city, Clusium. The inhabitants sought help of the Romans, who sent ambassadors





to confer with the enemy. When these were unable to persuade the Gauls to raise the siege, they took part in the fight and slew one of the Gallic chiefs. This so enraged the Gauls, that they marched at once upon Rome, and defeated the Roman army so

**B. C. 390.** utterly at Allia, that only a few fugitives escaped from the field. The day of the battle was forever afterward marked black in the Roman calendar, and kept as a day of penitence and prayer. Rome was abandoned by the women and children, and occupied at once by the Gauls. They set fire to the empty city, murdered the eighty old men who had remained behind to appease the gods by their blood, and then surrounded the capitol to which the soldiers had withdrawn. Under the command of Marcus Manlius, this garrison resisted so stubbornly that the enemy finally agreed to retire for a thousand pounds of gold. Their chief, Brennus, to increase the sum, threw his sword into one scale, and a doubtful story relates that Camillus, with a troop of fugitive Romans, pursued the retreating enemy and took away their booty.



A ROMAN TRIUMPH.

§ 107. The Roman people were so disheartened by this invasion, that they talked of removing to the abandoned city of the Veii. With difficulty, the Patricians succeeded in persuading them to remain. And to prevent a return to such a plan, the houses in Veii were destroyed, and Rome was hastily rebuilt with narrow and crooked streets and small dwelling houses. But the Patricians reclaimed their ancient privileges, and proceeded to execute the debtor laws with the old severity. The savior of the capital, Marcus Manlius (Capitolinus), took the part of the oppressed and impoverished Plebeians. This brought upon him the hatred of his own class. They accused

**B. C. 383.** the hero of aiming at kingly power, condemned him to death, hurled him from the Tarpeian rock, razed his house to the ground, and stamped his memory with infamy. This cruelty however aroused the Plebeians from their apathy. Two courageous and talented tribunes of the people Licinius Stolo and Lucius Sextius pro-

**B. C. 372.** posed the following laws: Consuls should be again elected, of which one should always be a Plebeian. No citizen should have on lease, more than five hundred acres of the public land, the rest to be distributed in small portions to the Plebeians as free-hold farms. The interest of debts already paid should be deducted from the capital, and the remainder should be collected in three yearly installments.

Against these proposals, the Patricians struggled mightily for ten years. But the firmness of the two tribunes led to their adoption, and to the abolition of Patrician

**B. C. 366.** privilege. The pontifical offices, the new judicial dignity of Prætor, and some other positions were left to their exclusive control. But only for a short time. Just before his death, Camillus dedicated a sanctuary, at the foot of the capitol, to Concord. This was a monument of the settlement of the ancient quarrel; and Rome now entered upon a period of civic virtue and of heroic greatness.



## II. ROME'S HEROIC AGE.

## 1. THE SAMNITE WARS AND THE FIGHTS WITH PYRRHUS.

## § 108.



MOVING swarms of Gauls still worried the Romans. Titus Manlius and Marcus Valerius distinguished themselves in fighting these, and the Romans now skilled in war, attacked the neighboring tribes. The Samnites, who dwelt among the Apennines, resisted most stubbornly, and with these they were compelled to fight with little interruption, for more than fifty years. The war was begun by the inhabitants of Capua and the Campanian plains. Samnite free

booters had captured the Etruscan colony of Capua, but had rapidly degenerated in this city of pleasures. The Samnites in the mountain attacked these effeminate Samnites of the plain who, unable to defend themselves, turned to Rome for help. The Romans refused at first, but when the Capuans acknowledged their authority, they marched against the Samnites and defeated them at Cumæ. And a second army of

**B. C. 342.** the Samnites suffered such losses at the Caudine passes, that 40,000 of their shields were collected on the battle field.

§ 109. The Romans were now threatened by their former allies, the Latins. These refused to acknowledge any longer the supremacy of Rome, and demanded equality, and a share in the Senate, in the consulate, and in the other offices.

**B. C. 340.** The Romans rejected their demands, concluded a hasty peace and alliance with the Samnites, and turned their arms against the enemy nearer home. As the hostile armies stood near Vesuvius, the Consul, Manlius Torquatus, forbade all single combats. His own son disobeyed, and was condemned to death by the stern father; his comrades however celebrated the memory of the young hero by a great funeral banquet. The battle of Vesuvius was decided in favor of the Romans, but chiefly by the self-sacrifice of the Plebeian Consul, Decius Mus. He had himself dedicated to death by a priest, and then clad

**B. C. 340.** in white, he rushed on horse-back into the midst of the hostile throng. After the battle the Latins, the Volscians, the Æqui, and the Hernici were admitted to an alliance with the Romans. They were allowed to rule themselves, but were required to serve in the Roman armies. The brazen prows (rostra) of the Volscian ships, taken in this campaign, were used to decorate the tribune of the orators in the Roman Forum.

§ 110. The Samnites now grew jealous of the Romans, and boundary quarrels



SAMNIAN WARRIOR. (*Vase Picture from Paris Louvre.*)



**B. C. 327.** brought on another war. This was advantageous for the Romans, until they recklessly marched into the Caudine passes. Here they were surrounded

**B. C. 321.** by the enemy under Pontius, and compelled to pass under the yoke. But the Senate refused to ratify the compact that the Roman consuls had made with Pontius, and delivered the two consuls, Veturius and Posthumius, in chains, to the Samnites. The Samnites refused to receive them and even spared the hostages in their hands. But they attacked Rome once more. The new Roman commanders, Papirius and Fabius, did their utmost to wipe out the shame of the former defeat, and were so successful that the Samnites were compelled to seek foreign help, first from

**B. C. 310-305.** the Etruscans, and then from the Sabellians. But the energy of Rome increased with the number of her enemies. The Samnites were compelled to make terms. But the peace was of short duration, for the Samnites united with the Umbrians, the Gauls, and the Etruscans, to carry on a third war, and in order to be near their new allies, they abandoned their own wasted territory and went to Umbria. But the battle of Sentinum, where the younger Decius Mus followed the example of his

**B. C. 295.** father, destroyed the last hope of the allies. Shortly afterward the great Samnite commander, Pontius, fell into the hands of the Romans; he was led in chains to the city on the Tiber, and suffered a violent death in prison. Once more

**B. C. 290.** the Samnites attacked the Romans, but in vain. Curius Dentatus inflicted upon them a second defeat, in which the Samnite youth drenched the battlefield with their blood. The Samnites and their allies were compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome, and to serve as allies in the army of their victors. The Romans planted military colonies in the subjugated lands, but treated the vanquished with sagacious clemency.

§ 111. During the Samnite wars, the rich and cowardly Tarentines behaved with great duplicity, and when a Roman ambassador offered them an advantageous treaty, they rejected it with scorn. The Romans therefore, as soon as they were masters of the Samnites, marched against lower Italy. The Tarentines sought help from Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who gladly seized the opportunity, to increase his renown and his conquests. He was a worthy antagonist,—a man of courage and of noble bearing, although his army was made up of men from every nation. Partly because

**B. C. 280-279.** of his famous line of battle, and partly because of his elephants, Pyrrhus was victorious in two battles; and when he made preparations to attack Rome, the Senate seemed desirous of peace. But the blind Appius Claudius had himself carried into the Senate to protest against such conduct, and persuaded them to send Pyrrhus word that no peace could be agreed upon, until the enemy left Italy; "that Rome would never make peace with a victorious foe." The wisdom and dignified bearing of the Senate, which seemed to the ambassadors of Pyrrhus, like "a gathering of kings," the integrity and simplicity of the Roman generals, Fabricius and Curius Dentatus, and the courage and the discipline of the Roman legions, excited the admiration of the King, who hitherto had known only the degenerate Greek world. Not long after this Pyrrhus was called, by the Syracusans, to Sicily, to defend them against the Carthaginians; but as he was preparing to take possession of the beautiful island, he was compelled by the Sicilian Greeks to depart. He marched once more to Tarentum, but was soon defeated so completely by the Romans, under

**B. C. 275.** Curius Dentatus, at Maleventum (ever afterward called Beneventum).

that he hastened to get back to Greece. Some years afterward Pyrrhus was killed in battle at the city of Argos. And about the same time Tarentum was made tributary to Rome, having lost her fleet and a part of her art treasures. The conquest of lower Italy soon followed. The vanquished peoples were compelled to recognize the sovereignty of Rome, either as allies or as subjects; and the depopulated cities were colonized with Romans, to whom all others were subordinated. The city on the Tiber was now in control of Italy. The renown of Rome had reached the Orient, and the Egyptian king, Ptolemy Philadelphus, sent a splendid embassy to the Senate, seeking an alliance with the Roman people.

## 2. THE PUNIC WARS.

### *a. The First War With Carthage (B. C. 264-241.)*

§ 112. Carthage, a commercial city on the north coast of Africa, had been  
**B. C. 880.** founded centuries before by Phœnician wanderers, and had reached great wealth and power through the enterprise and the intelligence of her inhabitants. The Carthaginians carried on an extensive trade with all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. They planted colonies in southern Spain and in Sicily, and grew so rich that the suburbs of their city was like a garden, and decorated with numerous splendid villas. But civic freedom, mental culture, and nobility of purpose, were unknown to these rich traders. The administration of law and of justice was in the hands of a plutocracy. Art and literature were hardly cultivated; their religious worship was stained by human sacrifices, and their falsehoods and cunning were so well known, that Punic faith was a proverbial expression for treachery and strategem. For a long time the Carthaginians fought with the Syracusans for the possession of Sicily; and when Dionysius, the son of a mule driver, but a young and daring warrior,  
**B. C. 406.** made himself sole ruler of Syracuse, and established, with the help of  
**B. C. 367.** a mercenary army, a despotism in the city, the Carthaginians rapidly gained ground. His son, Dionysius the younger, was a cruel and sensual prince, who  
**B. C. 267.** was driven from the city by the Corinthian hero, Timoleon. After  
**B. C. 344.** he had liberated Syracuse, Timoleon won the victory of Crimesus, whereby a limit was set to the progress of the Carthaginians. But another bold adventurer, Agathocles, originally a potter by trade, made himself tyrant of Syracuse; and renewed the war, which was conducted with such varying fortune, that Syracuse was besieged by the Carthaginians, and Carthage by the army of Agathocles at the very same time. Agathocles, however, conquered the North coast of Africa

**B. C. 306.** and assumed the title of king. But his army was soon annihilated, and he himself compelled to escape secretly to Syracuse, where he re-established his authority by murder and cruelty. He was finally poisoned, and so excruciating was the pain he suffered, that the hoary tyrant consented to be burned to death.

**B. C. 289.** A period of chaos followed. The Campanian mercenaries (Mamertines) of the dead tyrant took possession of Messina, murdered or banished the population, plundered and devastated the whole island. In their extremity, the Syracusans chose the brave and popular Hiero for their king. In alliance with the Carthaginians, Hiero attacked the Mamertines, and besieged their city Messina. The Mamertines thereupon turned to Rome for help.

§ 113. The more honorable citizens of Rome opposed an alliance with the Mam-

ertine robbers; but the Senate could not resist the temptation afforded them by this opportunity to conquer the rich and beautiful island of Sicily, although they perceived that the jealous Carthaginians, who were already in possession of the castle of Messina, would resist them to the last extremity. The Roman reinforcements soon succeeded in driving the enemy from the walls of the city, in

**B. C. 262.** forming an alliance with Hiero of Syracuse, and in depriving the Carthaginians of the important city Agrigentum. The Romans thereupon proceeded to build a fleet, according to the model of a wrecked Carthaginian ship. With this fleet they attacked the Carthaginians, and by means of grappling bridges, whereby the hostile ships could be invaded and the fight made to resemble a land fight, they won their first naval battle at Mylae, near the Liparian islands. This victory of the Consul, Duilius, so elated the Romans, that they determined to deprive the Carthaginians of the dominion of the Sea, and sent their Consul, Regulus, with a fleet and a great army, to Africa. Regulus marched victoriously to the gates of Carthage, supported by the recreant cities and tribes of North Africa. The Carthaginians sued for peace, but the haughty conqueror insisted upon such hard conditions, that they



ROMAN BOARDING BRIDGE.

determined upon a desperate resistance. They increased the number of their mercenary troops, and intrusted the conduct of their defence to the skilful Spartan, General Xanthippus, who defeated the Romans so completely at the harbor city of Tunis, that only two thousand of their army escaped. The others were either killed or taken captive. Among the captives was the Con-

**B. C. 255.** sul, Regulus. The recreant cities were terribly punished by the Carthaginians. Enormous contributions in money and cattle were levied upon them, and three thousand Numidian chiefs and civil officers are said to have died upon the cross.

§ 114. This blow was followed by a series of calamities. Two Roman fleets were wrecked by storm, and the Romans compelled for years to abstain from naval warfare. And even on the land they ventured no great battles. They feared the elephants which had been so decisive at Tunis, and which they themselves had not learned to use. Gradually, however, they recovered their strength and courage. They made a

**B. C. 251.** successful attack from Palermo, drove back the Carthaginians and captured their elephants. The Carthaginians, it is said, thereupon sent Regulus to Rome to negotiate an exchange of prisoners, exacting from him beforehand, an oath that he would return to captivity if the negotiation failed. Regulus dissuaded the Senate from the exchange, because he said it was injurious to Rome; and then, true to his oath, returned to Carthage. The Carthaginians were so enraged, that they killed the magnanimous man with cruel tortures. Victory wavered for many years. Appius Clau-





BATTLE OF MYLAE.

**B. C. 249.** dius, who, in spite of unfavorable auspices, entered upon a battle at Drepanum, was defeated on sea and land. Finally the Carthaginian General, Hamilcar Barcas, took possession of the citadel Eryx, from which he was able to watch all the movements of the Romans. This endured as long as Drepanum was sufficiently provisioned, but as soon as Rome, in consequence of patriotic enthusiasm, was pro-



REGULUS DEPARTS INTO CAPTIVITY.

vided by wealthy citizens, and by the use of the temple treasures, with a fleet of 200 vessels, the Romans were able to blockade the town. And the consul Lutatius Catulus so completely defeated the Carthaginian navy at the Ægean islands, that they consented gladly to a peace, in which they gave up Sicily and the fortresses which they had so long defended, and agreed to pay an immense sum to defray the expenses of the war.

*b. The Second Carthaginian War. (218-202.)*

§ 115. The Carthaginians refused to pay their mercenary troops their stipulated wages. This led to a terrible war that lasted through three years.

**B. C. 240.** Meanwhile the Romans transformed Sicily, the granary of Italy, into the first Roman province. They took possession also of Corsica and Sardinia, not however, without severe struggles with the half barbarous inhabitants. They took away the island Coreyra and a few cities along the coast, from the pirates of Illyria. Their

**B. C. 226.** hardest fight, however, was with the Cisalpine Gauls. These had

**B. C. 222.** come down from the Alps and from the valley of the Rhone, and had fallen upon Etruria. The Romans defeated them in two bloody battles at Telamon,

**B. C. 225.** on the Etrurian coast, and at Clastidium, on the river Po. They then

**B. C. 222.** took possession of the fertile tracts of land on both sides of the Po, and united them with Rome by two great highways, known as the Via Flaminia and the Via Æmilia. Cisalpine Gaul from this time was governed as a Roman province.

§ 116. The Carthaginians, meanwhile, had been making conquests in South Spain.

At first under the brave Hamilcar Barcas, and, after his death in battle, under the sagacious Hasdrubal. They built New Carthage, and thereby awakened the fear and the jealousy of the Romans. Hasdrubal was therefore compelled to sign a treaty, in which he recognized the Ebro as a boundary beyond which Carthage must not extend her conquests. The Romans at the same time formed an alliance with the rich and powerful trading city of Saguntum, which is held to have been a Greek colony. Hasdrubal was soon murdered. He was succeeded by Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, then in his twenty-fifth year. Hannibal combined the sagacity of his predecessor with the boldness and the genius of his father, and, as a boy, had sworn on the household altar eternal hatred to the Romans. He



HANNIBAL.

began his career by a few successful battles with the Spanish tribes, and then

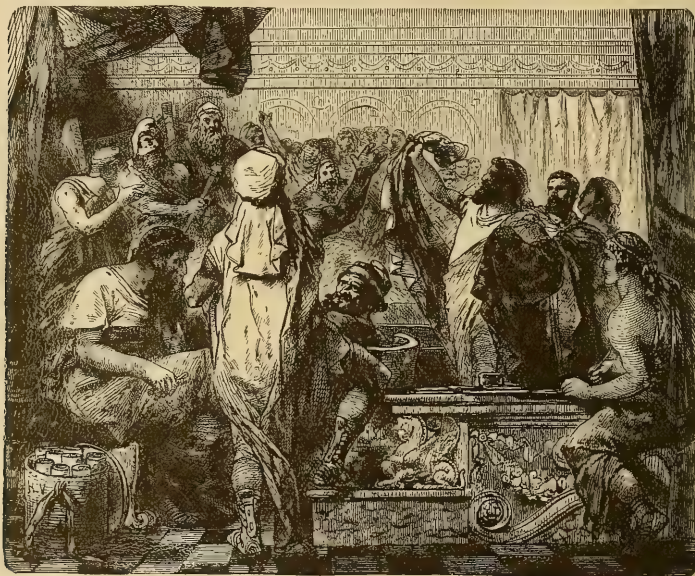
**B. C. 219.** starting a quarrel about boundaries, he attacked Rome's ally Saguntum. He was warned, in vain, by Roman ambassadors, to abandon the siege. He referred them to the Senate of Carthage, but meanwhile, after eight months labor, compelled the city to surrender. To speak more truly, he entered the city, which the inhabitants had transformed into a burning ruin. For when the last hope of saving the city had departed, they gathered their possessions together in the market place, set them on fire and then plunged into the flames, except a few who perished by the sword of the enemy, or under the embers of their burning houses. The Roman embassy in Carthage thereupon demanded the surrender of Hannibal. The senate hesitated and vacillated. Quintus Fabius, saying that he carried in his bosom peace and war, bade them choose. They demanded war with a loud voice. Opening the folds of his toga the Roman exclaimed "take then war!" Thus began the famous war of Hannibal, a mighty war of races, which was to determine whether the Greek-Roman culture of the west, or the Phœnician-Semitic culture of the east, should shape the development of mankind.

§ 117. In the spring of the year 218 B. C. Hannibal crossed the Ebro, subdued the



tribes of that vicinity, and then, with an army of 90,000 foot soldiers, 12,000 horsemen and thirty-seven elephants, crossed the Pyrenees. At the same time his brother, Hasdrubal, with a mixed army and a considerable fleet, held Spain in his control; Hannibal marched through South Gaul, conquered a passage across the Rhone, and

**B. C. 218.** began the immortal passage of the Alps. (Probably by the Little St. Bernard.) The soldiers, as they ascended, fought continually with the wild inhabitants and with the snow and ice. They forced their way across the walls of rock, and along the edges of terrible ravines, without shelter and without rest. The half of the army and all the cattle perished on the way. But his losses were soon made up when Hannibal, after fourteen days, arrived in upper Italy. The consul, Cornelius Scipio, was



QUINTUS FABIUS DECLARES WAR.

defeated and severely wounded in a cavalry fight on the Ticinus river. His colleague, the heedless Sempronius, in spite of the wonderful bravery of his tired, hungry soldiers, was defeated utterly in the battle at Trebia. And this decided the Gallic tribes, on both sides of the Po, to attach themselves to Hannibal. After a short rest in Liguria, he began the difficult march across the Apennines. On this march he lost one

**B. C. 217.** of his eyes by inflammation. He now devastated Etruria, and at Lake Trasimene he fought the Consul Flaminius. The latter by his rashness brought upon himself a complete defeat, in which he perished, and his warriors were either slain or drowned in the lake. The fight was so hotly contested that an earthquake, which tore up the ground beneath the combatants, remained unnoticed. The way to Rome now

stood open to the victor, but the defiant courage of the Latin and Italian population of middle Italy, and the courageous bearing of the senate, made the Carthaginian general hesitate to press forward, with his exhausted troops, into the heart of the enemy's country. Driven back from the walls of Spoletium, he concluded to march along the



HANNIBAL CROSSING THE ALPS.

east coast of the Mediterranean toward Apulia, and to detach from Rome the people of lower Italy.

§ 118. Hannibal was now confronted by a man whose prudence and sagacious strategy caused him many difficulties. This was the Dictator, Fabius Maximus, the dilatory (cunctator). Fabius avoided an open battle, but pursued the enemy step by

step, taking advantage of every unfavorable position. In Campania, where he occupied the mountain heights, he forced Hannibal into a position so dangerous, that the Carthaginian escaped only by a strategy. He tied burning branches to the horns of oxen and, by driving them through the mountains, was able to deceive the Roman general. Nevertheless the Roman people murmured at the dilatory conduct of the war, and by their senseless urging, induced the Consul Tarentius Varro to venture a battle against the judgment of his colleague, Æmilius Paullus. This resulted in

**B. C. 216.** terrible defeat of the Romans at Cannæ, where the number of the slain was so great, that Hannibal is said to have collected three bushels of gold rings taken from the arms of the dead knights. These he sent to Carthage. Among the captured,

was the noble Æmilius Paullus. This battle-day of Cannæ, like that of Allia, was marked black in the Roman calendar, and observed as a day of penance and prayer. The invincible senate preserved, in the midst of disaster, its courage and composure. All who had fled at Cannæ were declared dishonored, and expelled from the army, and the returning consul was thanked by the senate, because he had



BATTLE OF CANNÆ.

not despaired of the salvation of the republic. Parties were reconciled, and vied with each other in patriotic devotion.

§ 119. Hannibal deemed it unwise to march at once against Rome with his weakened army, so he went into winter quarters in the rich and luxurious city of Capua. But his rough warriors were so weakened by the pleasures of the city, that they lost all zest for fight. The Romans, on the contrary, were uncommonly active, preparing to put fresh troops in the field in the early spring. Hannibal received no reinforcements from Carthage. Two successful engagements filled the Romans with courage, and made it possible for them to chastise the cities in Lower Italy and Sicily, which had gone over to Hannibal after the battle of Cannæ. Marcellus sailed across to Sicily and besieged Syracuse, but this was so bravely and successfully defended by the people, with the help of the ingenious mathematician and scientist Archimedes, that Marcellus was

**B. C. 214.** able to conquer the city only after three years of tremendous effort. Ter-

**B. C. 212.** rible, however, was the revenge of the Romans. The soldiers murdered and plundered. Archimedes was clubbed to death. The works of art were carried to Rome, and the glory of Syracuse was destroyed forever. Capua suffered a like fate.





STRATAGEM OF HANNIBAL.

Two Roman legions surrounded the city. The inhabitants besought Hannibal for help. The latter marched to the gates of Rome, hoping that the Romans would abandon the siege in order to save their capital. The excitement in Rome was almost wild, when the flames of the neighboring cities announced the coming of the enemy, and the terrible phrase "Hannibal is at the gates," never disappeared from the memory of the people. Nevertheless, only a part of the troops left Capua for Rome. Hannibal was compelled to retreat, and the starving Capua compelled to surrender. Twenty-

**B. C. 211.** eight Capuan senators died by their own hands; fifty-three were beheaded; the citizens were reduced to slavery, and their property divided among foreign settlers. The treasures of Capua were carried to Rome, all rights were abolished,

**B. C. 209.** and Roman prefects ruled the city. Two years later, Tarentum came again into the power of the Romans. Fabius Maximus, "the shield of Rome," led the inhabitants into slavery and took possession of their treasure, but did not disturb the statues of "the angry gods." Terror soon led the recreant states back to Rome, and Hannibal's situation without money, without reinforcements, and without provisions,

**B. C. 208.** became, with every day, more critical. His victory at Venusia, where Marcellus, "the sword of Rome," fell into an ambuscade, was the last successful deed of the great Carthaginian.

§ 120. Hannibal's only remaining hope was Spain, now that he was abandoned by his ungrateful country. His brother, Hasdrubal, was there. He had successfully resisted the Romans for a



CORNELIUS SCIPIO. (*Africanus*.)

long time, until confronted by the young and able Cornelius Scipio, who so pressed him, that he could no longer remain, and therefore determined to unite with his brother, who had called him to Italy. Crossing the Alps,

**B. C. 208.** as Hannibal had done, he arrived in upper Italy, and, moving along the coast of the Adriatic Sea, he pushed forward to the camp of his brother, who was confronted in lower Italy by the Consul, Claudius Nero. The consul now resolved upon a daring plan. Unper-

**B. C. 208.** ceived, he slipped away to Umbria, formed a union with his colleague, Livius Salinator, attacked and destroyed the army of Hasdrubal, near the river Metaurus, before Hannibal received news of his brother's arrival, the Romans having captured all the Carthaginian messengers. Hasdrubal's bloody head, which the returning consul hurled into the Carthaginian camp, was the first notice that the distressed general

received of his impending fate.

§ 121. But Hannibal in adversity revealed the true greatness of his military genius. Without aid from abroad, meanly supported by his native city, abandoned by his Italian allies, except the few cities which, like Crotona, were afraid of Punic garrisons, or of Roman vengeance, he maintained himself nevertheless against a superior foe, with the remnant of his army, for several years. Meanwhile Cornelius Scipio conquered Gades, the last bulwark of the Carthaginians, and, having completed the conquest of Spain, returned victorious and laden with booty, to be rewarded with the

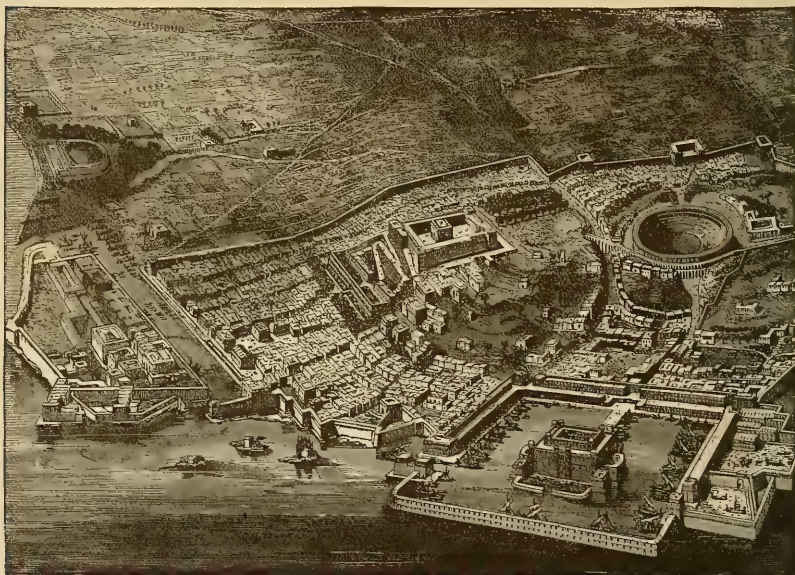




DEATH OF ARCHIMEDES. (*Nicolo Barabino.*)



Roman consulate by his grateful fellow-citizens. But he soon grew tired of the capital where he had many powerful opponents, and where the constitution and the laws hampered his imperious will. Moreover, his soul thirsted for activity, and the applause of the people spurred him on to new enterprises. The cautious Senate refused to sanction his plan of a campaign in Africa, but appointed him governor of Sicily. Scipio opened a recruiting camp in Syracuse. The Roman warriors, who had fled from Cannæ, and many other volunteers, hastened to his standard, and many cities made contributions, in order to provide his army with all the requisites for a great expedition. Scipio then set sail across the Mediterranean, and with the help of the Numidian king, Masinissa, the Romans surprised the camp of the Numidians and Cartha-



ANCIENT UTICA.

**B. C. 204.** ginians, not far from Utica, set fire to their tents of straw and wooden huts, and defeated the united enemy with great loss. Masinissa had formerly fought against Scipio, but changed sides when his neighbor, Syphax, of West Numidia, a friend of Carthage, robbed him of his kingdom and of his beautiful bride, Sophonisbe, the daughter of Hasdrubal, and compelled him to flee to the desert. Syphax fell into the hands of Scipio in a second battle, and was carried prisoner to Rome, where he soon perished miserably. His stolen wife, Sophonisbe, hoped to escape the vengeance of the Romans by a speedy marriage with Masinissa, but, when threatened with captivity, she preferred the cup of poison which was given her by Masinissa. After such blows as these, Carthage had but one remaining hope, Hannibal and his Italian

army. With mutterings and tears, the hero abandoned the land of his glory, in obedience to the call of his country. He sought in vain, in a personal interview with Scipio, to make a treaty of peace. Scipio refused and the battle of Zama followed, which, in

**B. C. 203.** spite of the bravery of the veteran soldiers and the skilful disposition of the Carthaginian general, ended in his defeat. Hannibal now advised peace on any terms. The Carthaginians were compelled to promise to begin no war without the consent of the Romans, to give up all claim to Spain, to surrender their war ships, and to pay a large yearly tribute. After burning the Carthaginian fleet, and conferring the kingdom Numidia upon his friend Masinissa, Scipio (henceforth Scipio Africanus) returned to Rome, where a splendid triumphal procession awaited him in the decorated streets. Hannibal, on the contrary, was compelled to abandon his native country, and as a persecuted fugitive, carried his hatred for Rome to the court of the Assyrian king Antiochus.

*c. Macedonia Conquered Corinth and Carthage Destroyed. (B. C. 146.)*



BATTLE OF ZAMA.

§ 122. Macedonia and a part of Greece was at this time governed by King Philip III., a young man of intelligence and wit, and attractive manners, but faithless, sensual, and wicked. He had formed an alliance with Hannibal, and made war upon the Romans and their allies in Greece and Asia Minor. Consequently, after the Punic wars, the Romans turned their arms against him. They sent Quintius Flaminius, a man

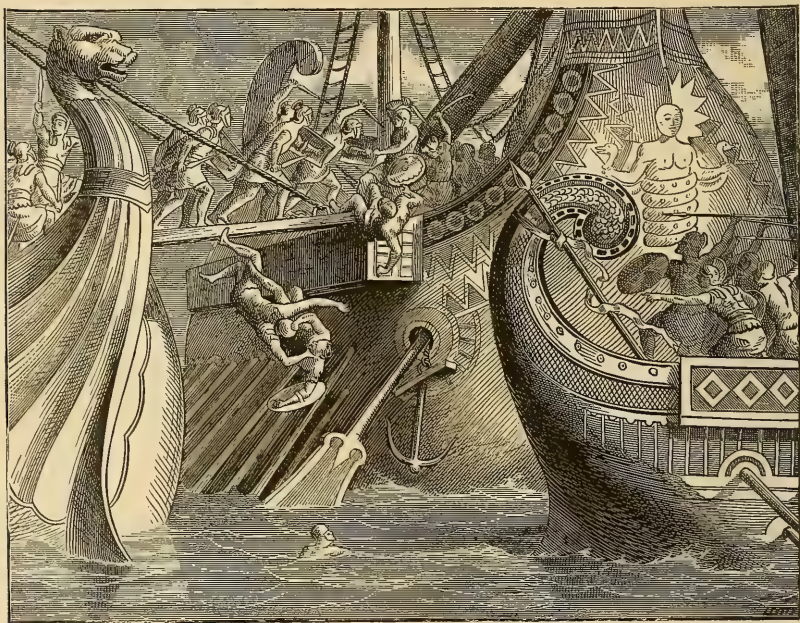
who delighted in Greek art and literature into Greece, to stir up the Hellenic cities to rebellion. The Macedonians were attacked and defeated at Dog's Head (Kynoskephala), a Thessalian range of hills not far from Pharsalus. Philip was compelled, by this defeat, to acknowledge the independence of Greece, to surrender his fleet and a large sum of money, to give up all his foreign possessions, and the right of waging war. In order to flatter the vanity of the Greeks, Flaminius announced, in the most ostentatious manner at the Isthmian games, the liberation of

**B. C. 196.** Greece from Macedonian rule. But the Romans soon sought to exercise dominion over the Hellenic states. The warlike Ætolians therefore placed themselves at the head of several Greek tribes, as the Achæans had formerly done, and



appealed to the Syrian king, Antiochus III. Antiochus, at whose court Hannibal was a guest, followed their call; but he wasted his time in banquets and debauchery, insulted the Macedonian king, his natural ally, instead of attacking the Romans at once and with united energy. The Romans marched swiftly into Thessaly, stormed Thermopylæ, and compelled the Assyrian king to retreat to Asia. He was followed thither

**B. C. 190.** by a Roman army under Cornelius Scipio, the brother of Africanus. At Magnesia a sanguinary battle was fought, in which Antiochus was utterly defeated. He was compelled to purchase peace by ceding to Rome all his European possessions, and all the lands of Western Asia this side of the Taurus. In addition he paid an



CAPTURE OF THE CARTHAGINIAN FLEET BY THE ROMANS.

enormous sum of money. The Ætolians were also subjugated and punished with heavy fines. Hannibal, to escape the Romans, fled to King Prusias of Bithynia.

**B. C. 183.** When the latter could no longer protect him, he took poison to escape his enemy. He had faithfully kept the oath of his boyhood in a struggle of fifty years. His great antagonist, Scipio, died about the same time on his estate in Lower Italy far from Rome, from which his enemies had driven him; and to fill up the measure of this fateful year, Philopœmen also was compelled to drink the poisoned cup.

§ 123. Perseus, the wicked son of Philip III., persuaded his suspicious father to



**B. C. 151.** murder his noble son Demetrius, who was well disposed to the Roman people. Remorse soon carried the unhappy father to his grave. And as soon as

**B. C. 179.** Perseus ascended the throne, he began a new war which led to his overthrow. His immense riches made it possible for him to have made great prepara-

tions, but his avarice and stubborn conceit made him an easy prey to the skillful and

**B. C. 168.** experienced Roman general, Æmilius Paulus. Perseus was defeated



TITUS Q. FLAMINIUS PROCLAIMING LIBERTY TO THE GREEKS. (H. Vogel.)

at the battle of Pydna, and fled with his adherents to the island of Samo-Thrace, but they were compelled to surrender themselves unconditionally to Octavius, the commander of the Roman fleet. And the king with his treasures, his captive children and friends, was led in triumph through the streets of the city of the world. To all his pleadings the Romans answered, "Free yourself from shame," but he had not the courage to take his own life. He died a captive at Alba. Macedonia was divided into four districts, which were granted republican government. A thousand noble

**B. C. 149.** Achæans (among them the great historian Polybius) were carried as hostages to Rome. Twenty years later a pretended son of Perseus (false Philip as he was called) raised the standard of rebellion against Rome. This gave the Romans the wished-for opportunity to convert Macedonia

**B. C. 148.** into a Roman province. Metellus soon overcame the pretender, but he had hardly left the conquered land, when the Achæan league took arms, hoping to break the yoke of Roman bondage. Metellus marched to meet them and had defeated them in two battles, when he was suc-

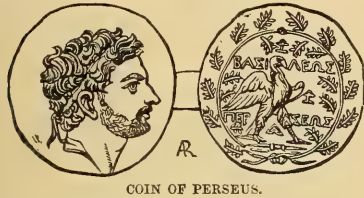
**B. C. 146.** ceded by Mummius, a rough and uncultivated warrior, by whom the splendid city of Corinth was stormed and burned to the ground. The Corinthians were either slain or sold into captivity; the works of art destroyed, sold, or carried off to Rome; Greece converted into a Roman province, and, under the name of Achaia, made subject to the governor of Macedonia. A phantom of their former freedom and self-government

BATTLE OF MAGNESIA.





was conceded to the Greek cities, but only a phantom. Roman oppression and Roman taxation soon destroyed the prosperity of the once flourishing cities, and quenched the love and liberty and the patriotism of former centuries. The Spartans became mercenary soldiers, the Athenians wandered about as artists and scholars, actors and dancers, and poets. The Romans patronized them and despised them.



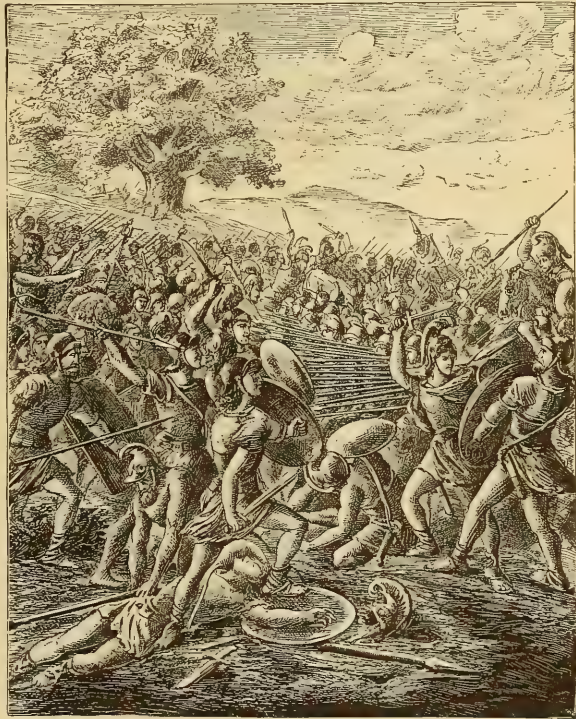
COIN OF PERSEUS.

§ 124. Carthage meanwhile returned to her former prosperity. The jealousy of Rome revived, and Cato concluded his

famous speeches invariably with the declaration "Carthago delenda est" "Carthage must be destroyed." Trusting to Roman protection, the Numidian king Masinissa

enlarged his territory at the expense of Carthage, provoking boundary quarrels and invasions. Rome declared these invasions a breach of the treaty, and declared war. The Carthaginians pleaded for mercy, and delivered

**B. C. 149.** to the Romans three hundred hostages, their arms and their ships. Nevertheless the sentence was pronounced, "Carthage must be torn down." The citizens were permitted to build a new town ten miles distant from the sea, but they determined rather to be buried under the walls of their houses, than to abandon their ancient and beloved home on the sea. A daring courage, a patriotic



BATTLE OF PYDNA.

enthusiasm seized all ranks and ages. The city became a camp; temples were converted into forges and armories. Even the veteran legions of Rome were powerless in



the presence of this enthusiasm. Frequently defeated, their condition was extremely critical, when the younger Scipio, the talented son of Æmilius Paulus, and the adopted son of Scipio, became consul and dictator. He finally succeeded in con-

**B. C. 146.** quering the starved and pest-stricken city. But only after a desperate resistance, and six days of murderous conflict in the streets. The rage of the embittered combatants and a terrible conflagration destroyed the majority of the population. A desperate band of Roman deserters, who with the general, Hasdrubal, and his wife and children, defended the temple of "The god of rescue," despairing of their lives, set the building on fire, expecting all to perish in the flames. But Hasdrubal did not share the heroic feeling of his wife; he escaped and sought mercy from the Romans. Fifty thousand inhabitants escaped the sword, but they were sold into slavery, or doomed to long imprisonment by the victorious Scipio, henceforth known as the younger Africanus. "Let Carthage be leveled to the ground," was the decree of the Roman senate. "Let the barren site be torn up by the plow, and the soil be cursed forever." For seventeen days the fire raged, and the proud mistress of the Mediterranean became a pile of ashes. "Where the industrious Phœnicians had wrought and traded for five centuries, Roman slaves now pastured the herds of their absent masters." The subject territory was henceforth known as the Roman province, Africa.

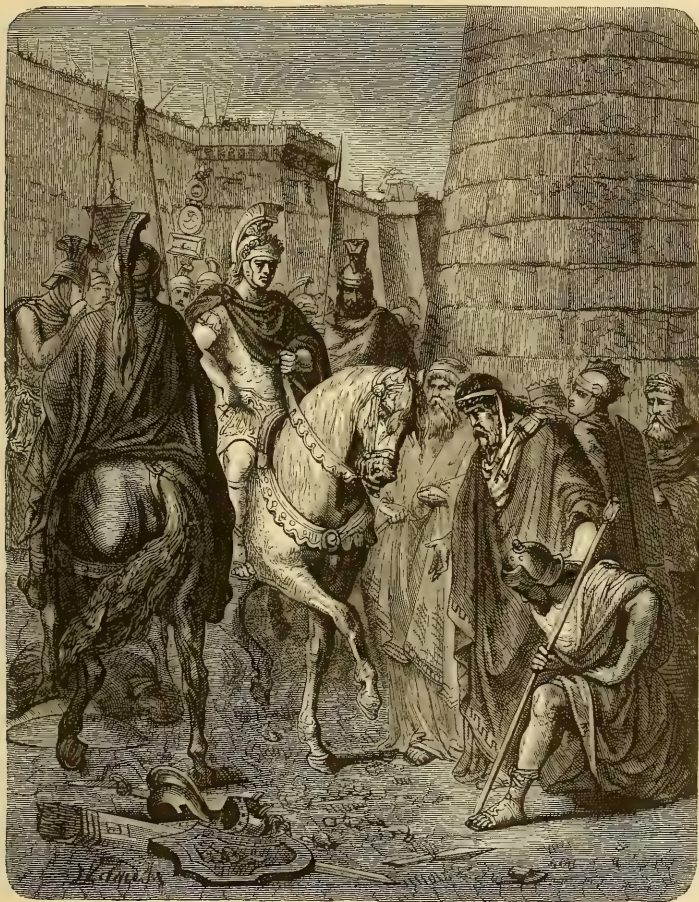


COIN OF ALEXANDER BALAS.

#### d. *Roman Culture and Manners.*

§ 125. The acquaintance of the Romans with Greece wrought great changes in Roman culture, Roman morals, and Roman habits of life. The works of Grecian art and literature, taken from the plundered cities, produced a taste for culture, and awakened new feelings and new ideas. A powerful party, at the head of which were the Scipios, Marcellus, Flaminius, and others, favored Hellenic philosophy, poetry and art, patronized Greek scholars, poets and philosophers, and sought to bring to Rome not only the art treasures, but the mind and the language of the conquered people. Roman poets appeared who followed Grecian models. **Plautus, B. C. 184.** wrote comedies, and the latter was patronized by the younger Scipio and his friend Lælius. Twenty comedies of Plautus and six of Terence have been **Terence, B. C. 159.** preserved, and have been frequently imitated by modern dramatists. The Romans, however, were practical people; their thoughts were directed to the art of war, to the administration of the state, and to jurisprudence. The common people had more pleasure in parades, in gladiatorial fights, and fights with wild beasts, than in the productions of art or the gifts of the Muses. But the richer classes introduced into their homes the elegance and refinement of Greek life, clothed themselves in fine raiment and gave luxurious banquets. They adopted too the social politeness of the Oriental, his sensual pleasure, his lust of the eye and lust of the mind. As a consequence the ancient morals, discipline, simplicity, moderation, and fortitude began to disappear. This led M. Porcius Cato to form an opposition party, in order to resist these innovations. As censor, he proceeded with the utmost severity to put down Greek philosophers, Greek orators, Greek festivals, Greek religious usages and every

kind of luxury and sensual splendor. Cato also composed writings upon agriculture the basis of Rome's ancient greatness, and upon the old Italian races, whose simplicity and moral purity he contrasted with the degenerate manners of his own time. Yet



METELLUS IN GREECE.

Cato's own example, for he himself learned Greek in his old age, shows that strict adherence to the ancient and traditional, must succumb to the progressive tendency of a new epoch.

### III. ROME'S DEGENERACY AND THE PARTY STRUGGLES OF THE REPUBLIC.

§ 126.

1. NUMANTIA, TIBERIUS, AND CAIUS GRACCHUS.



THE Roman dominion was increasing, but Roman virtue, Roman patriotism, the sources of their greatness, were as rapidly decreasing. The rich and the noble formed a new aristocracy, which, like the earlier Patrician, appropriated to itself all dignities and

offices. To increase their inherited glory by victories and triumphal processions, they sought continually for new wars, in which they could be conspicuous. And in order not to diminish the riches upon which the power of the family was based, and yet at the same time to enjoy every pleasure and delight, the provinces were plundered and their clients were oppressed. The Optimates, the men of the new nobility, were made pro-consuls and pro-prætors in the conquered lands. Surrounded by a mob of secretaries and officials, they looked far more to their own advantage, than to the happiness of the people of the provinces. The richer members of the order of Knights farmed out the taxes, paying into the state treasury



ROMAN LADY AND SLAVE.

a definite sum, and then, by means of tax-gatherers, doubling and tripling this amount. Hungry tradesmen and money-lenders took the little that was left by the officials and the tax-gatherers, so that a generation was long enough to destroy the prosperity of a Roman province. A law existed, it is true, which gave the outraged people the right to accuse their oppressors at



DEAD GLADIATOR HAULED TO THE SPOLIARIUM. (A. Wagner.)



the close of an administration and to require a restoration of their property. But the judges all belonged to the aristocracy or the plutocracy. Accordingly the guilty went scot-free, or were condemned to pay a small penalty or banished from Rome for a brief period.



THE TAKING OF CARTHAGE.

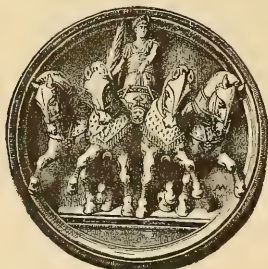
**B. C. 133.** Numantia. The intrepid citizens died by their own hand, rather than endure the taunts of the victors. Scipio (henceforth Numantinus) destroyed the empty city, whose ruins still look down upon posterity, the glorious monument of a noble struggle for independence.

Occasionally a province sought to shake off the yoke, and to conquer freedom in battle. The first example of such an uprising was given by the inhabitants of Spain, the Lusitanians, who dwelt in what is now Portugal, under their brave leader Viriathus, and the heroic Spanish race who dwelt in and around Numantia. Viriathus was murdered by a band of faithless conspirators, but the Numantians defied the Romans for five years, and com-

**B. C. 139.** pelled from the Roman Consul, whom they surrounded in the mountains, the recognition of their independence. But the Senate refused to confirm this agreement. The Consul, stripped of his decorations and with his hands tied behind his back, was delivered to the enemy, and the war resumed. But the brave mountaineers were not yet conquered. The younger Scipio now took the field, and having restored the ancient discipline, was able, with his army, to compel the surrender of

§ 127. The new nobility not only filled all the offices, excluding all newcomers from positions of high honor, but possessed all the public land, and rapidly absorbed the small freeholds by purchase, usury, intrigue, and even violence. This brought about a great inequality of fortune. The free-hold farmers, the strength of ancient Rome, disappeared entirely, while the Aristocrats accumulated great estates, which were cultivated by hordes of slaves. These were known as *latifundia*. Throngs of beggars, composed of men and women, hunted from house and barn by cruel landlords, wandered through Italy, the picture of human misery. Tiberius Gracchus, son

**B. C. 133.** of Cornelia, and grandson of the great Scipio Africanus, now rose up as the protector of oppressed poverty. He proposed to renew the Licinian laws so that no one should possess more than 500 acres (*jugera*) of the public land. The rest to be distributed in small portions among the needy families. He was met with a storm of hatred. The Aristocrats found another tribune of the people to veto the proposal of the tribune Tiberius, And as, by Roman law, the tribunes must be unanimous, the proposal was defeated. But Tiberius Gracchus urged the people to depose his colleague, and thereby violated the sanctity of the office. His enemies accused him of intending revolution; he lost gradually the favor of the people, and at an election of tribunes, he, with 300 of his adherents was slain by the Optimates and their supporters. The people who had abandoned him, honored his memory by the erection of his statue.



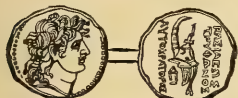
TRIUMPHAL QUADRIGA.



ROMAN DANCING WOMAN.

§ 128. Caius Gracchus, the younger brother, was as brave, as determined, and far more talented. He  
**B. C. 123.** renewed the proposal of Tiberius, and with it proposed a distribution of grain at fixed prices, to the poorer citizens. His extraordinary eloquence and his humane efforts, created for him a powerful following among the people, whose pressing misery he sought to relieve by building highways, by public works, and by the founding of colonies on the African coast. As he marched through city and land, no one ventured to oppose him, especially as the great Scipio

Africanus Æmilianus had been found one morning murdered in his bed. But when the tribune of the people, urged by his violent friend, Fulvius Flaccus, proposed to give the right of Roman citizenship to the allies, in order to strengthen his following and his power, the Aristocrats, in their terror, determined to destroy him. As in the



COIN OF TRYPHON. (*Syria.*)

case of his brother, a tribune was won over, Livius Drusus vetoed his proposals, and made the people believe that this increase of Roman citizens was a blow directed at themselves. He promised them also many advantages, if they

would support him in his contest with Gracchus. A terrible fight took place between the two parties, the Aristocrats, with the consul Opimius at their head, and the adherents of Gracchus and of Fulvius. Fulvius and 300 of his companions were slain, and their corpses thrown into the Tiber; Gracchus escaped to a grove beyond the river, and perished at the hands of a faithful slave, who plunged, as his master commanded, a sword into his breast. The laws and



CORNELIA AND THE GRACCHI. (*H. Vogel.*)

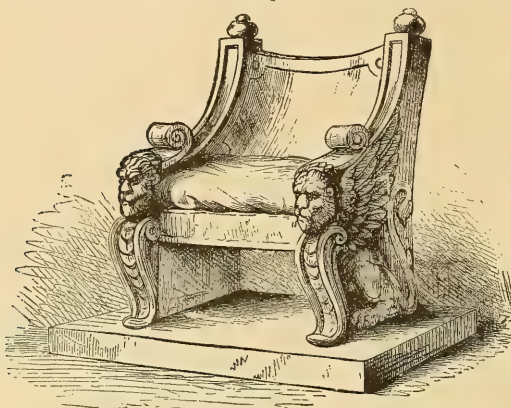
**B. C. 121.** ordinances of Gracchus were abolished; his party friends punished with death, imprisonment, and exile. The Aristocrats were once more the rulers of the republic. They declared the memory of the Gracchi infamous. But the people paid the noble brothers an increasing tribute of reverence.

## 2. THE TIMES OF MARIUS AND CYLLA.

§ 129. THE JUGURTHINE WAR.—The Aristocrats disgraced their rule by greed



and bribery, by the defiance of every feeling of justice and of honor. Jugurtha the cunning, skillful, and ambitious grandson of Masinissa of Numidia, took advantage of this moral degeneracy and corruption in Rome, and killed two sons of his uncle, who had



ROMAN CHAIR OF STATE.

been made joint rulers with him. He took possession of their states, the sovereignty of which the Romans had guaranteed them, and by bribing influential Senators, he was able to remain in possession of his plunder, and to heap crime upon crime. Finally the anger of the people compelled the Senate to send an army to Africa; but the Numidian king, by bribery and corruption, produced such disorder in the army, that they were beaten in the first encounter and compelled to pass under the yoke. This

disgrace so embittered the Romans, that the Senate was compelled to take measures for  
**B. C. 109.** the punishment of the insolent king. Metellus was sent with fresh troops to Africa. He restored discipline to the army, and victory to the Roman standards. But the people were so embittered against the aristocracy, that they were determined, at every cost, to drive them from control. To this end they needed a bold leader from their own circle, and they found one in the ambitious Caius Marius, a man of ignoble birth, but brave, enterprising, endowed with great military ability, and filled with hatred for the rich and the aristocratic. The rough warrior despised all culture and refinement. And, smarting from an insult which he had received from the haughty Metellus, was eager for revenge. He offered himself as consul, was elected

**B. C. 107.** by the popular party, succeeded in having Metellus pushed aside, and himself entrusted with the conduct and completion of the Jugurthian war. The energetic Marius and his severely disciplined army, soon proved too strong for Jugurtha, with all his cunning and expedients. He was conquered, and driven to take refuge with Bocchus, king of Mauritania. But this faithless and vacillating prince

**B. C. 105.** delivered him to Cornelius Sylla, who was next in rank to Marius. The "Son of the desert" was carried in triumph to Rome, imprisoned in an underground cell of the capital, and starved to death in his "Chilly bathroom," as he called his dungeon, upon entering it.

§ 130. The Cimbrians and Teutonians. The African war was not yet ended, when the Cimbrians and Teutonians appeared on the Roman frontiers. These northern races were of gigantic size and strength, and were marching forward with their women, children, and property, to conquer for themselves new homes. They were clad in skins of beasts and in iron armour, and carried enormous shields, long swords and heavy

**B. C. 113.** clubs. They first attacked the Romans in Karinthia. The latter had

expected to lead them into an ambuscade, but were defeated in a bloody battle, after which the barbarians marched through Gaul, plundering and ravaging. Within four years, they annihilated five consular armies in the valley of the Rhone and on the shores of Lake Geneva. At this juncture, Marius, whom the Romans had re-elected

**B. C. 105-100.** repeatedly to the consulate, contrary to the law, appeared as the savior of the republic. His army, recruited from all classes and tribes of Italy was proof against fatigue of every kind. Marius exercised the strictest discipline, compelled his soldiers to endure all manner of hardships, and to perform every kind of labor. The Teutons returning from an expedition into Spain, and marching toward Upper Italy, encountered Marius at Aquæ Sextiæ, and were defeated with terrible slaughter. The Cim-

**B. C. 102.** brians, who had meanwhile broken through the Tyrol, and the valley of the Etsch, into upper Italy, abandoned themselves to the pleasures offered them by that rich country; and were suddenly overwhelmed by Marius and his colleague Lutatius Catulus, near Vercellæ. The rough courage of these Germans, who slaughtered themselves and their children,

**B. C. 101.** rather than enter into slavery, made the Romans tremble. Small remnants of the Cimbrians sought shelter in the Venetian Alps, and in the mountains of Tyrol, where their posterity remain to this very day. The battle of Vercellæ gave new strength to party quarrels, as the Democrat, Marius, demanded for himself the glory of the day, which, in the opinion of the Aristocrats, belonged to Catulus.

§ 131. THE WAR AGAINST THE ALLIES. Marius, the savior of Italy, the pride

**B. C. 100.** and the hope of the popular party, was rewarded with a sixth consulate. The Aristocrats now gathered about Cornelius Sylla, an ambitious statesman of military genius, who united in himself the culture of the Aristocrat and the vices of the people. His was a strong mind in a strong body. Under his leadership, the Aristocrats made rapid progress in opposition to the Democratic party. The illegal conduct of Saturninus, the tribune of the people, who, secretly, supported by Marius, distributed corn to the poor, and lands in Gaul and North Africa to the soldiers of Marius, was the prelude of a terrible party-struggle, which became more threatening with every day. The exile of the haughty but blameless Metellus, who refused to execute the decree of the people, was intended to deter the senators from all opposition. By deeds of murder and outrage, Saturninus prolonged his period of office, and obtained for his companion, the infamous Glaucia, the consular dignity. Marius now grew ashamed of his allies and abandoned them. This gave the Optimates the courage to oppose their antagonists. The lawless conduct of the factions now destroyed all public order, and the popular excitement broke out in insurrection and street-conflicts. The Democrats

**B. C. 99.** were beaten; their leaders, with many of their adherents, were murdered by the aristocratic youths, who tore the tiles from the roof of the capitol to hurl upon



INHABITANT OF GERMANY AT THE BEGINNING OF OUR ERA.

their heads. But the mass of the people and their Italian allies, continued their disorder and violence. Livius Drusus, the younger, sought to mediate between the Senate and their opponents, and proposed to help the poor by land laws, colonization, and distribution of corn; and to satisfy the allies by conferring upon them the rights of citizenship. But the Aristocrats refused to listen to him; he was attacked in his own house, just

**B. C. 91.** as he was dismissing the crowd that had escorted him home, and he died in a few hours. The murderer was not discovered, and the proposed laws of Drusus came to nothing. The cheated allies, who were enthusiastic for the plans of Drusus, now rushed to arms, determined to conquer equal rights or independence. The

Sabellians, the Samnites, and the Marsians declared their independence of Rome, formed an Italian league,

**B. C. 90-88.** and proclaimed Corfinium, under the name of Italica, the capital of the new union. Veteran armies took the field. In Rome the people put on mourning, armed the freed-men and gave equality of rights to the Latins, the Etruscans, and the Umbrians. And after wavering fortunes and many bloody battles, the Romans succeeded in conquering the enemy. The proud anti-Rome, Italica, sank back to its former obscurity. But the danger was yet so imminent, that the Romans deemed it prudent to concede the rights of citizenship to all their allies. But they divided these new citizens among eight tribes only, so as to limit their political power.



ROMAN CENTURION.

§ 132. **THE FIRST WAR AGAINST MITHRIDATES.** Hardly were the allies pacified, when the Romans were attacked from the East by a brave and able prince, Mithridates, king of Pontus, on the Black Sea. He sought to unite into one great league, the Asiatic and Greek states, which were brought to despair by the oppression of Roman tax-gatherers, and to conquer independence from Roman rule. Faithless and cruel, but strong, energetic, and invincibly courageous, the king of Pontus was the most important enemy of the Roman people; and against him, they defended themselves like the lion of the desert against the hunter.

In western Asia, at the command of Mithridates, on one terrible day, all men who wore the toga, 80,000 in number, were put to death. At the same time, the king took possession of Roman territory, and sent an army into Greece to protect the Athenians, the Bœotians, and others who had joined him. The Roman Senate thereupon gave Sylla the command of the war against him. Sylla had distinguished himself in the war against the allies, and had been chosen consul.

**B. C. 88.** But Marius, with the help of the eloquent tribune, Sulpicius, and of the "New citizens" obtained a decree of the people, according to which he was himself entrusted with the conduct of the Mithridatic war. The two messengers who brought this edict into Sylla's camp, were stoned to death by the angry soldiers, and





GERMAN WOMEN DEFENDING THEIR WAGON CASTLES. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(*pp. 193.*)

Sylla marched straightway to Rome. He drove Marius, with eleven of his companions, into exile as traitors to their country, restored the authority of the Senate, arranged for the safety and the order of the city, and then resumed the campaign against Mithridates. Marius escaped manifold dangers, and found his way to Africa.

§ 133. **THE FIRST CIVIL WAR.** Sylla first stormed Athens, which atoned for its rebellion by a terrible massacre. He then plundered the temple of Delphi, and con-

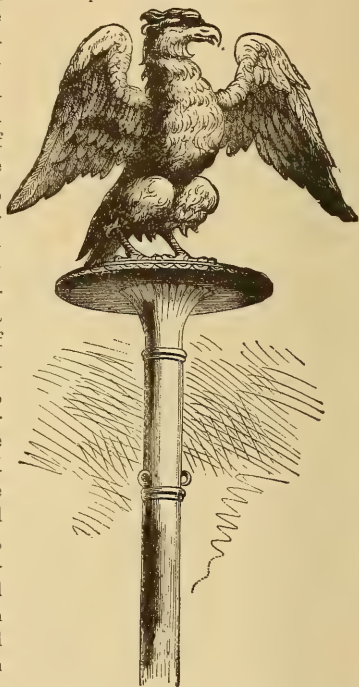
**B. C. 86.** quered the army of the king of Pontus in two battles. He marched through Macedonia and Thrace to Asia Minor, and compelled Mithridates to make a

**B. C. 84.** peace, in which Rome once more acquired control of Western Asia, and in addition, a large sum of money and the entire navy of the Pontian king. The rebellious cities and districts were punished severely by fines and confiscation. Flavius Fimbria, the adherent of Marius, who had defeated Mithridates before Sylla's arrival, was now threatened by the latter, and abandoned by his soldiers. The cruel destroyer of new Ilium, thereupon took his own life, in a temple at Pergamos. Marius meanwhile had left the ruins of Carthage, and returned to Italy. He gathered about him a band of desperate men, and allying himself with the Democratic leaders, Cinna and Sertorius, marched to the gates of Rome. The city, weakened by hunger and discord, soon surrendered, and Marius gave his vengeance free course. Mobs of rough soldiers plundered and murdered on every side. The leaders of the Aristocratic party, the most respected and renowned Senators and Consulars, were slain, their houses plundered, their property confiscated, and their corpses abandoned to dogs and vultures. Marius then had himself chosen consul for the seventh time, and thus reached the goal that had been promised him by an oracle in his youth, and toward which he had struggled restlessly for many years. The excitement, in which his own rage and his fear of Sylla's prosperity and revenge had

**B. C. 86.** brought him, chased all peace from his soul. He abandoned himself to drink, and a violent fever soon put an end to his life. Two years afterward Cinna was slain in a soldiers' quarrel.

§ 134. In the year 83 before Christ, Sylla landed in Italy and marched

**B. C. 83.** immediately to Rome. In Lower Italy he defeated several times the Democratic consul, besieged the younger Marius in the fortified city of Præneste, driving him to suicide; and then in a bloody battle near the gates of Rome, defeated the Marian party and the rebellious Samnites. Marius, before his departure from



EAGLE ON ROMAN STANDARD.

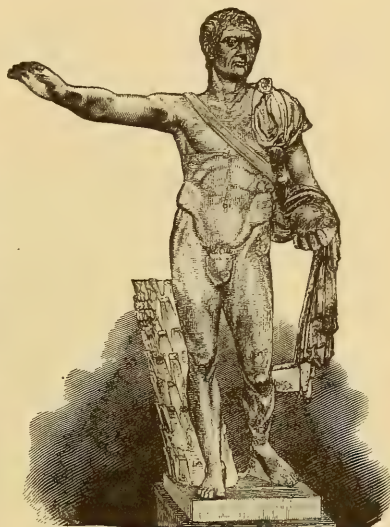
the capital, had put to death the venerable Pontifex Maximus, Scævola, and other chiefs of the opposition party; and Sylla, to revenge them, slaughtered four thousand prisoners in the Circus Maximus, in the presence of the trembling Senate. 100,000

**B. C. 82.** human lives had already perished in the civil war, when Sylla "the fortunate," as he was called, published the proscription lists, upon which stood the names of those Romans who were to be plundered and murdered. All ties of blood, of friendship, of gratitude, and piety were thereby torn asunder. Sons attacked their fathers, slaves their masters; terror and outrage everywhere prevailed. Sylla was

**B. C. 82.** proclaimed dictator and published the Cornelian laws, by which the whole authority of the state came into the hands of the Aristocrats. The power of the

**B. C. 79.** tribunes was broken; the administration of justice, and the system of taxation, entirely reorganized. These arrangements completed, Sylla resigned his dictatorial office and retired to his estate, where he soon died, either from a hemorrhage or from a terrible disease, brought upon him by his mode of life. His corpse was brought to Rome and committed to

**B. C. 78.** the flames with magnificent funeral ceremonies. He was without faith, but not without superstition; he relied upon his star and his own strong mind, but silenced the voice of his conscience by a scrupulous observance of religious rites.



POMPEY. (*Palazzo Spada, Rome.*)

### 3. THE TIMES OF CNÆUS POMPEIUS AND OF TULLIUS CICERO.



GLADIATORS. (*From an Antique Mosaic.*)

§ 135. The death of Sylla did not restore peace to the shattered commonwealth. The proscribed and persecuted Democrats gathered about their brave

**B. C. 75.** and upright leader Sertorius, and fought successfully against the Roman armies in Spain. Supported by the natives, whose favor Sertorius had been able to win, they thought of establishing a republic, independent of Rome; and not until Sertorius had been murdered at a banquet by his jealous comrades, was Pompeius (who had early joined the party of Sylla and was now regarded as its chief) able to suppress the insurrection. His

good-natured manners and conciliatory character made him a successful mediator. Half hero and half adventurer, his chivalrous bearing captivated the popular imagination, and aroused the enthusiasm of the army.



§ 136. When Pompey returned to Italy from Spain, he was confronted by a new enemy, the insurgent slaves. Seventy gladiators escaped from Capua, broke open the

**B. C. 72.** slave prisons in Lower Italy, and sounded a cry for a war of freedom. In a short time their number had increased to fifty thousand. At their head stood the bold Thracian, Spartacus. Their first intention was to return home. But after conquering two Roman armies that had undertaken to bar their way, they were filled with the hope of destroying the Roman power, and of revenging themselves for their ill-treatment. The peril of Rome was great and imminent, but lack of discipline and harmony divided the slaves, and led to senseless expeditions. The consul Marcus Crassus was consequently able to surround the poorly armed bands in the mountain forest



DEATH OF SPARTACUS. (*H. Vogel.*)

of Sila, and, having isolated them, to conquer each group singly. Spartacus, with a part of his army, forced a passage to Lucania, but was defeated, after a heroic resist-

**B. C. 71.** ance, in a bloody battle at the river Silarus. The power of the insurrection was now utterly broken. All prisoners were put to an excruciating death. A few remnants of the army succeeded in reaching Upper Italy, but were annihilated by Pompeius. The two victors were rewarded, the following year, by an election to the consulate, and vied with each other for the favor of the people, by their lavish expenditures.

§ 137. But Pompey acquired his chief renown in Asia, where he carried to a successful termination, the war against the pirates and a second war against Mithridates. The pirates had their homes in the barren mountain regions of southern Asia Minor;

from these they made plundering voyages over the Mediterranean, devastating the islands and the coast, kidnapping aristocratic Romans, in order to obtain great sums as ransoms, and interrupting everywhere commerce and travel. Pompeius was therefore

**B. C. 67.** intrusted, by the Gabinian law, with a dictatorship over the seas, islands and shores of the Roman commonwealth and provinces. In three months he scoured the whole Mediterranean sea, driving out the pirates; then conquered the fortified castles and cities of their own land, and deported the prisoners to the Cilician city, Soli, which was afterward called Pompeiopolis. Hardly was this accomplished, when the Manilian law entrusted, to Pompeius, the conduct of the second Mithridatic war.

§ 138. For the king of Pontus, encouraged by the discord at Rome, had

**B. C. 74.** taken up once more his former plans of conquest and of independence. He besieged the wealthy island city of Cyzicus, which was friendly to the Romans; but was so thoroughly defeated by Lucullus, that he hastened back to Pontus. Crassus pursued him and conquered Pontus, whereupon Mithridates sought protec-

**B. C. 72.** tion and help from his son-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia. The latter led into the field, near his splendid capital Tigranocerta, an enormous army, among which, the steel-clad riders with their lances, were regarded

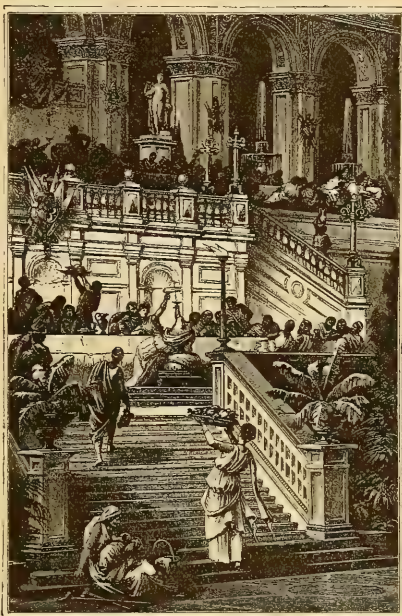
as invincible. Lucullus, on the contrary, commanded a force so small that the king spoke of it as too large for an embassy, and too small for an army. Nevertheless

**B. C. 69.** Tigranes was defeated, and Lucullus was about to subjugate the whole kingdom and to carry the Roman eagles into Parthia, when the legions, discontented because of many hardships, broke into mutiny. Lucullus thereupon returned to his riches and his pleasure-gardens,

**B. C. 67.** while Pompey left Italy to take command of the

**B. C. 66.** rebellious army. He conquered Mithridates, in spite of the re-enforcement that the latter had gathered, in a nocturnal battle on the Euphrates. He then reduced the Armenian king to subjection, and compelled the war-like tribes of the Caucasus to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome; and finally proceeded to

**B. C. 64.** Syria, and brought to an end the dominion of the Seleucids. Mithridates, bereft of nearly all his lands, attacked by his own son Pharnaces, abandoned



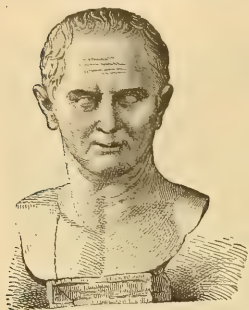
A SUPPER AT LUCULLUS'.



COIN OF TIGRANES.  
(King of Syria.)

by his soldiers, and deserted and betrayed by his oppressed subjects, took poison and perished with his wives and daughters; not however, before a sentinel, taking pity

**B. C. 63.** upon the writhing prince, had helped the poison with his sword. A



CICERO.

laurel-crowned messenger brought the news of the death of his greatest enemy to the Roman commander in his camp at Jericho. Pompeius organized his conquests into three provinces, gave some of the more distant lands over to the authority of tributary kings, and then returned to

**B. C. 62.** Rome, where he celebrated his victory with a two days' triumph, having filled the treasury of the commonwealth with enormous riches.

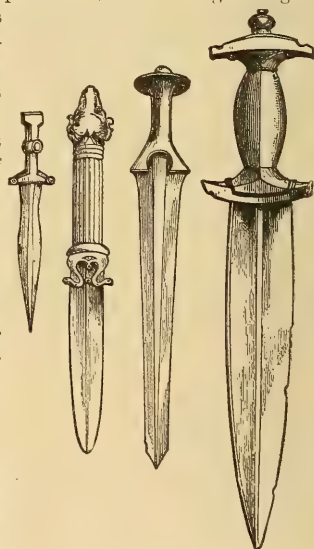
§ 139. During the absence of Pompeius, his friend and adherent, Tullius Cicero, had won for himself the name of "Father of his Country." Cicero, the child of unaristocratic parents, had so distinguished himself by his talents, his energy, and irreproachable life, as to be elected consul. In Athens and Rhodes he had devoted himself to Greek learning, especially to eloquence and philosophy, with such zeal and success, that he could be compared as a statesman and orator to Demosthenes. Although vain and weak, he possessed civic virtue, patriotism, and a strong feeling of justice. During his consulate, a conspiracy was

**B. C. 63.** formed by Cataline, a man of aristocratic birth, but stained by a vicious life, and loaded down with debt. He and his fellow-conspirators intended to murder the consuls, set fire to Rome, overthrow the constitution, and, in the consequent confusion to get control of the city, by the help of the soldiers of Sylla, and the mob, and then to establish a military dictatorship. But the vigilant Cicero brought to naught their wicked undertaking. In his four orations against Cataline, he unmasked the

**B. C. 62.** bold traitor in the Senate, and forced him to fly to Etruria, where he and his soldiers were defeated by the consular armies. The courage of the traitors was worthy of a better cause. Five of his fellow-conspirators died a violent death in prison.

#### 4. THE TIMES OF CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR.

§ 140.—THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE. Sylla's success spurred ambitious men to imitation; each sought to be the first, and to get possession of the commonwealth. Pompey possessed an almost royal authority, and was resting upon his laurels, while his great rival, Caius Julius Cæsar, gradually acquired strength. Cæsar was at once orator and writer, statesman and soldier. His liberality made him popular, and his ambition spurred him on to great achievements. In order to overcome the party of



ROMAN DAGGERS.



**B. C. 60.** old Republicans, led by Portius Cato, the younger, Cæsar made an alliance with Pompeius and Crassus. This was called the triumvirate, and the three men pledged to each other mutual help, and with the support of the popular party, ruled the commonwealth, without regard to the wishes of the senate. They procured



JULIUS CÆSAR.

the confirmation of the arrangements made by Pompeius, in Asia, cunningly removed Cato from Rome, by entrusting him with an honorable mission, and instigated the Tribune,

**B. C. 58.** Clodius, to provoke the banishment of Cicero, because he had executed the companions of Cataline without legal authority. Cæsar then obtained the governorship of Gaul, where he conducted a long war, and, not to

**B. C. 56.** be disturbed in his enterprises, he renewed the triumvirate for two years longer. Pompeius received Spain as his province, governed it, however, by subordinates, exercising at Rome a dictatorial power. Crassus, the richest man in Rome, greedily chose the distant Syria, with its

**B. C. 53.** treasures, but was conquered in the desert of Mesopotamia, by Parthian horsemen, and after the death of his son, Publius, and the greater part of his troops, was overtaken as a fugitive and killed. The exulting victors gloated over his corpse, and stuffed his pallid mouth with gold. The Roman standards fell into the hands of the

enemy. Of the splendid army that had crossed the Euphrates, the half remained on the battle-field, and 10,000 prisoners were carried into the far East, and sold as slaves. Only a small remnant was rescued by the legate, Cassius, who conducted them with difficulty to Syria.



CÆSAR CROSSING THE RHINE.

§ 141.—CÆSAR'S GAL-  
LIC WARS (B. C. 58-50).  
Gaul (now France), and  
Helvetia (now Switzer-  
land), were anciently inhab-  
itated by the Celts. These  
were divided into small  
states and tribes, which  
were governed by a nobility  
and a priesthood of Druids.  
Gaul had already become  
a Roman province, when  
the Helvetians, crowded  
by the Germans, determ-  
ined to leave their bar-

ren mountain country, and to seek new homes in southwest Gaul, on the river Garonne, and the slopes of the Pyrenees. To prevent this, Cæsar marched to Gaul. He conquered the Helvetians at Bribacte (near Autun), and compelled them to return to their wasted homes and villages. Novia Donum (now Nyon), on the shore of Lake Geneva, became a Roman boundary fort. Cæsar turned then

toward Germany, conquered the German chieftain, Ariovistus, who had been called by the Sequani to help them against the Ædui, and had settled in East Gaul with his rough warriors, where he oppressed both peoples with his arbitrary rule. Cæsar defeated him in the valley of the Rhine, and compelled him, with the remnant of his army, to recross the river. Ariovistus, soon after this defeat, died of his wounds. Cæsar

**B. C. 55-53.** then subdued the Belgians, the Nervii, and other Gallic tribes, crossed the Rhine twice, in order to terrify the inhabitants of the German forest, and to restrain them from hostile incursions into Gaul. Cæsar's Commentaries upon the Gallic War, are the records of this expedition. But the Roman General had no thought of permanent conquest in Germany, or in Britain, on the coast of which

**B. C. 55-54.** he landed twice. He wished to show, only, that the arm of Rome reached across the Rhine and the Channel. After a few fights with the Celtic inhabitants of Britain, he sailed back, to complete the subjugation of the Gallic tribes; for their unsteady and vacillating nature led them to constant change. They rebelled the mo-

**B. C. 52.** ment Cæsar left them. Not until he had put down the last uprising in Alesia, was he able to convert the land that bordered on the Rhine into a Roman province. Vercingetorix, their last leader, was led in triumph through the streets of Rome, and beheaded at the foot of the capitol. The religion of the Druids,



VERCINGETORIX SURRENDERS TO CÆSAR.





DRUID PRIEST OFFERING HUMAN SACRIFICE IN THE SACRED GROTTO. (*A. de. Neuville.*)  
(*pp. 201.*)



with its gloomy human sacrifice, gave place to the Pagan gods of the Greek and the Roman.

§ 142. THE SECOND CIVIL WAR. (B. C. 49-48.) Meanwhile party strife in Rome had degenerated into robbery and murder. Powerful leaders fought in the streets, and at the places of election, against each other, with armed adherents; and the insolent Clodius was

**B. C. 52-50.** murdered by Milo, a friend of Cicero, on the Appian Way. Bribery was so shameless that, without it, nothing could be accomplished. The Senate and the old Republicans adhered to Pompeius, and offered him the consulate. He used this great power to the disadvantage of Cæsar, of whose renown he was envious. At his instigation, the Senate ordered Cæsar, at the close of the Gallic War, to lay down his



CÆSAR CROSSING THE RUBICON.

command, and to discharge his troops. Curio and Antonius, two tribunes of the people, who proposed this decree, and demanded that Pompeius also should surrender his

**B. C. 49.** authority, were driven from the city. They fled to Cæsar's camp, and urged him to come forward as the protector of the violated rights of the people. After some hesitation Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, the boundary river of his province, and marched against Rome. The die was cast; Pompeius, terrified from his apathy and careless confidence, did not venture to await him in the capital. He hastened with his few troops, and a great train of Senators and Aristocrats, to Brundisium; and when the victor approached this city, he hurried across the sea to Epirus. Cæsar did not pursue him, but returned to Rome. He took possession of the state treasure, and then pro-

ceeded to Spain. An indecisive battle was fought at Ilerda, between the Pyrenees and the Ebro, but, by his subsequent movements, Cæsar so crowded his adversary, that Pompey was forced to an agreement, in consequence of which, his officers were discharged, and his common soldiers transferred to the victor. Cæsar, on his way home, besieged and conquered the city of Massilia, which had closed her doors against him; and after punishing the citizens, marched to Rome, where he was proclaimed dictator,

**B. C. 48.** and elected consul for the following year. He then crossed the Ionian Sea to attack Pompeius in person. The decisive battle of Pharsalia soon took place, in which Cæsar's veterans, although opposed by double their numbers, won a brilliant victory. With a few faithful comrades, Pompeius fled to Egypt, where he was murdered. Ptolemy, hoping to win Cæsar's favor, ordered him to be killed, as he landed in Pelusium. His body was cast unburied on the shore.

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA.

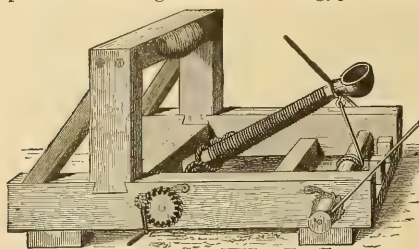


§ 143. Cæsar followed Pompeius into Egypt. He shed tears of sympathy, when he heard of the fate of his great antagonist, and refused to reward the instigator of the murder; for when he was chosen arbitrator in the quarrel between Ptolemy and his beautiful sister Cleopatra,

he decided in favor of the latter. This brought him into war with the King and the Egyptian people,—a war that detained him nine months in Alexandria, and brought him into great danger. When the citadel, in which he defended him-

self with wonderful skill, with a part of its great library, burst into flames, he withdrew to the neighboring island Pharos. But not until re-enforcements reached

**B. C. 42.** him, and Ptolemy had been drowned in the Nile, could he invest Cleopatra with the government of Egypt, and march out to fresh victories. The battle



BALLISTA. (*Time of Cæsar.*)

of battle; many of the survivors committed suicide, among them the noble Cato, who in death remained true to the principles that he had maintained through life. A four days triumph greeted the victor on his return to Rome. He soon left the city, however, for Spain, in order to attack his last enemies, who had gathered around the sons

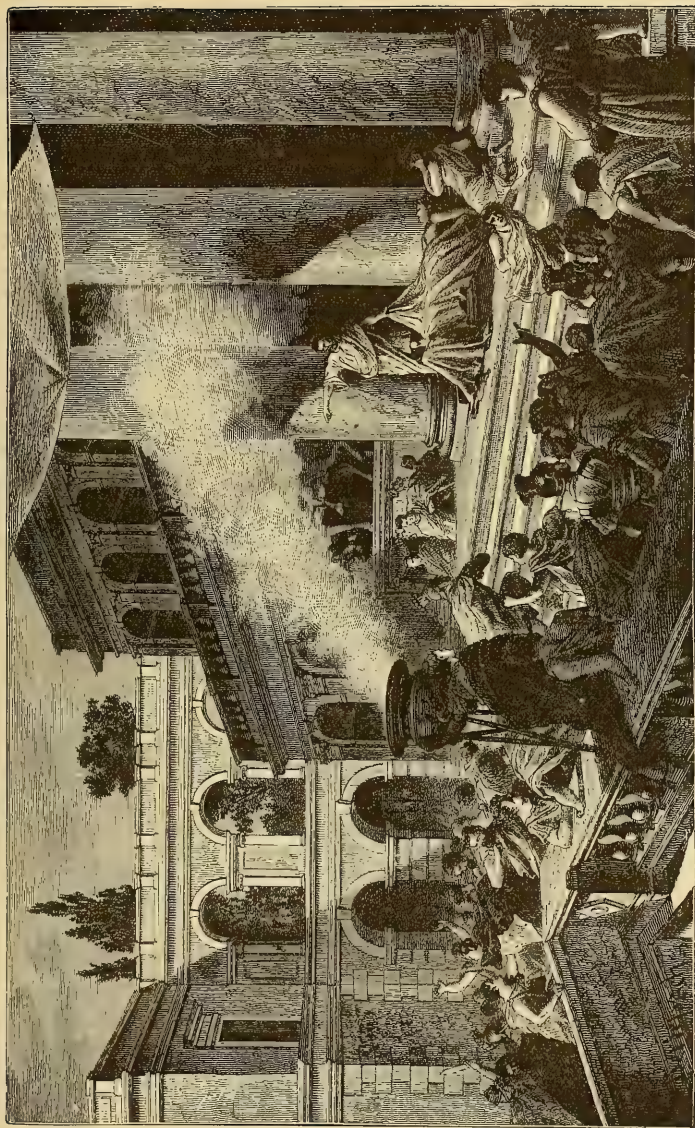
**B. C. 45.** of Pompeius. In the terrible battle of Munda, where both sides fought with the courage of desperation, and where Cæsar's fortunes and life were in the greatest danger, he succeeded finally in destroying the last remnants of the Pompeian and Republican parties. One of Pompey's sons was killed in his flight; the survivor became a pirate, and died ten years later, at the hand of a murderer.

§ 144. Cæsar now returned to Rome, as lord and master of the commonwealth. He was greeted as the "Father of his Country," and chosen dictator for life. The soldiers and the people he sought to win by his liberality, and the Aristocrats, by offices. He furthered commerce and agriculture; beautified the city with temples, theatres, and parks; protected the provinces against the oppression of officials; reformed the calendar, and established many good and useful institutions. But his evident desire for the title and the dignity of a monarch, his increasing haughtiness, his contempt of the Senate and of republican forms, brought about a conspiracy. His favorite and flatterer, Marc Antony, offered the "Imperator" at a banquet, the kingly crown, and in spite of the affected displeasure with which Cæsar refused it, his inward satisfaction and the purpose of his party were easily recognized. At the head of the conspiracy stood Marcus



JULIUS CÆSAR.





MARC ANTONY DELIVERS THE FUNERAL ORATION OVER THE DEAD BODY OF CÆSAR. (H. E. V. Bertelsch.) (pp. 205.)

Junius Brutus, Cæsar's friend, and the stern Republican Caius Cassius. Cæsar, disregarding all



THE YOUNG OCTAVIUS.

warnings, convened a session of the Senate on the Ides of March, in the Hall of Pompeius: he fell, pierced with three and twenty daggers, and with the cry, "Et tu Brute!" at the base of Pompey's statue, yet not before he could wrap himself in his toga, in order to fall with decency and dignity.

## 5. THE LAST YEARS OF THE REPUBLIC.

§ 145. It was soon manifest that the idea of freedom survived only in the minds of a few patriots, but was extinguished in the hearts of the people. The momentary enthusiasm for the newly conquered liberty, soon turned into hatred and abuse of the murderers of Cæsar, when Marc Antony, at his funeral, discoursed eloquently of his services and of his genius, paraded a number of real or pretended legacies from the dead hero's testament, and ordered presents to be distributed to the poor. The senate, on the other hand, supported the conspirators, and committed the administration of the provinces to certain

of their number. When Antony undertook to get possession of one of these provinces by force, Cicero delivered his *Phillipics* against him, and induced the senate to declare him an enemy of the republic. Antony was defeated in battle at Mutina, and fled to the governor of Cisalpine Gaul (Lepidus). The senate now openly favored the Republicans. This brought upon them the opposition of Octavius Cæsar who, as heir of the great name, had the old soldiers on his side. Cæsar Octavianus was the grandson of the sister of Julius, and was afterward known as Cæsar Augustus. He raised the standard of revenge and formed, with Antony and Lepidus, a

second triumvirate. New proscription lists were published, in which appeared the names of many famous Senators and Knights. A reign of terror now began. Kinship, friendship, filial piety, disappeared. Among the victims of this thirst for blood was Cicero; his head and his right hand were planted upon the rostrum.

§ 146. The rulers of Italy, having satisfied their vengeance, marched against the Republicans

who had gathered about Brutus and Cassius, and established their camp in Macedonia. At Philippi a decisive battle was fought, in which Cassius was compelled to yield to Antony, while the legions of Octavius were driven back by Brutus. Cassius, deceived by false reports, threw himself upon his sword, and the triumvirate,



MARC ANTONY.

renewing the battle twenty days later, defeated Brutus; and "the Last of the Romans," fell likewise by his own hand. His wife, Porcia, the daughter of Cato, took her own life, as did many of the friends of liberty. Philippi became the sepulcher of the republic. The struggle was now not for freedom, but for dominion. The victors divided up the empire, so that Antony obtained the East, and Octavian the West. The weak Lepidus was given, at first, the province of Africa; of this he was deprived in a short time.

§ 147. While the dissolute Antony was enjoying the incense of Greece, and the delights of Asia, while he was leading a life of luxury, at the court of Cleopatra in Alexandria, the cunning Octavian, and the leader of his fleet, Agrippa, were winning



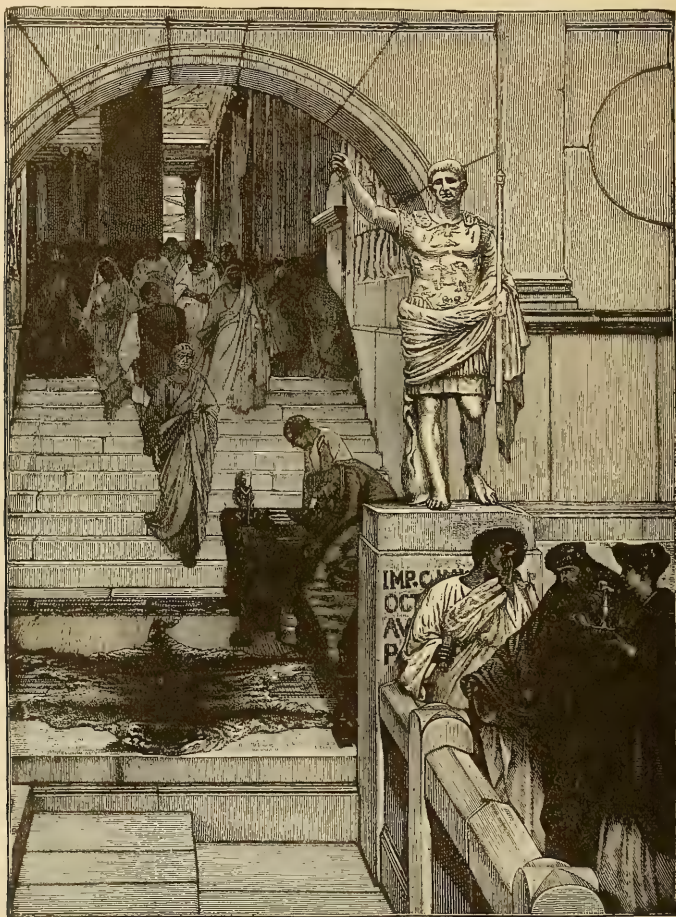
DEATH OF BRUTUS. (*H. Vogel.*)

over the Roman people, by their expenditures and plays. They rewarded also their

**B. C. 41-40.** soldiers with lands, and kept army and navy in practice. The attempt of Fulvia, the wife of Antony, to hinder these distributions of land, resulted in the battle of Perusia, in which her party was defeated, and the old Etruscan city utterly destroyed. Antony quarreled frequently with Octavian, and was frequently reconciled to his former friend. But when he wasted Roman blood and stained Roman honor in a futile march against the Parthians, when he married Cleopatra, the foreign queen, and gave Roman provinces to her sons for their kingdoms, the senate, under the guidance of Octavian, deprived Antony of all his dignities, and declared war against Cleopatra. East and West attacked each other, but the sea fight at Actium,



**B. C. 31.** in spite of Egyptian superiority, was decided in Octavian's favor. Antony and Cleopatra fled, as the victor approached the gate of Alexandria. Antony threw himself upon his own sword, and Cleopatra, when she perceived that her charms



AN AUDIENCE AT AGRIPPA'S. (L. Alma Tadema.)

were powerless over Octavian, and learned that he meant to take her as a captive to Rome, poisoned herself with scorpions. Egypt became the first province of imperial Rome.

**B. C. 30.**



ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA AT THE BATTLE OF ACTIUM. (*H. Vogel.*)  
(pp. 209.)



## IV. IMPERIAL ROME.

## 1. THE TIMES OF CÆSAR OCTAVIANUS AUGUSTUS.

§148.

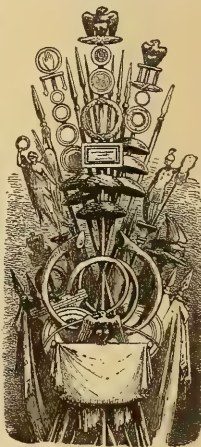


THE civil wars had carried off the able and patriotic men; the surviving crowd demanded only bread and circuses. It was therefore not difficult for the astute Octavian, who was called by senate and people Cæsar Augustus, to transform the Roman republic

*Augustus,*

*B. C. 30 to 14 A. D.* of the Romans, he did not call himself King or Lord,

but preserved republican names and forms, and called himself Cæsar. Nevertheless he gradually obtained from the senate and the people, the control of all the offices and powers of the State. As commander-in-chief of the army (*imperator*) he determined peace and war; as prince (*princeps*) he was president of the senate and state council, chief of the legislature and of the judiciary; as *tribune*, with authority to choose his colleagues, he was the representative of the people. Accordingly, the popular assemblies became less frequent and less powerful. As *censor* and *pontifex maximus* private morals, religion and worship were under his control. As *consul* and *pro-consul*, with the right to appoint a substitute and of nominating colleagues, he conducted the administration of Rome and of the provinces. He was adroit and gentle, moderate yet persistent, a master of dissimulation, thoroughly acquainted with the weaknesses of men, and hence he reached his goal more safely than his great-uncle Cæsar. The Roman empire, during his reign, reached its greatest extent and its highest degree of culture. It stretched from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, from the Danube and the Rhine to the Atlas mountains, and the waterfalls of the Nile. Art and literature so flourished, that the period of Augustus is known as the Golden Age. Splendid highways, provided with mile-stones, connected the twenty-five provinces with Rome, and facilitated intercourse. Magnificent aqueducts and canals attested the daring energy of the Roman people. The city was adorned with temples, theaters, and baths and so changed that Augustus



ROMAN STANDARDS.



ROMAN DENARIUS OR "PENNY."

could say, "I found it brick and left it marble." The Pantheon, which Agrippa dedicated to all the gods, is still a beautiful ornament of Rome. Augustus and his friends, Mæcenæ, Pollio, and others, furthered art and literature, and patronized poets and scholars. The first public library was built upon the Palatine hill.

The citizens, no longer occupied with war and with politics, dedicated their leisure to reading and writing, passed from deed to speech, and from action to thought. Culture spread rapidly among all classes.

§ 149. ROMAN LITERATURE.—The chief poets of the Augustine age were Virgil,



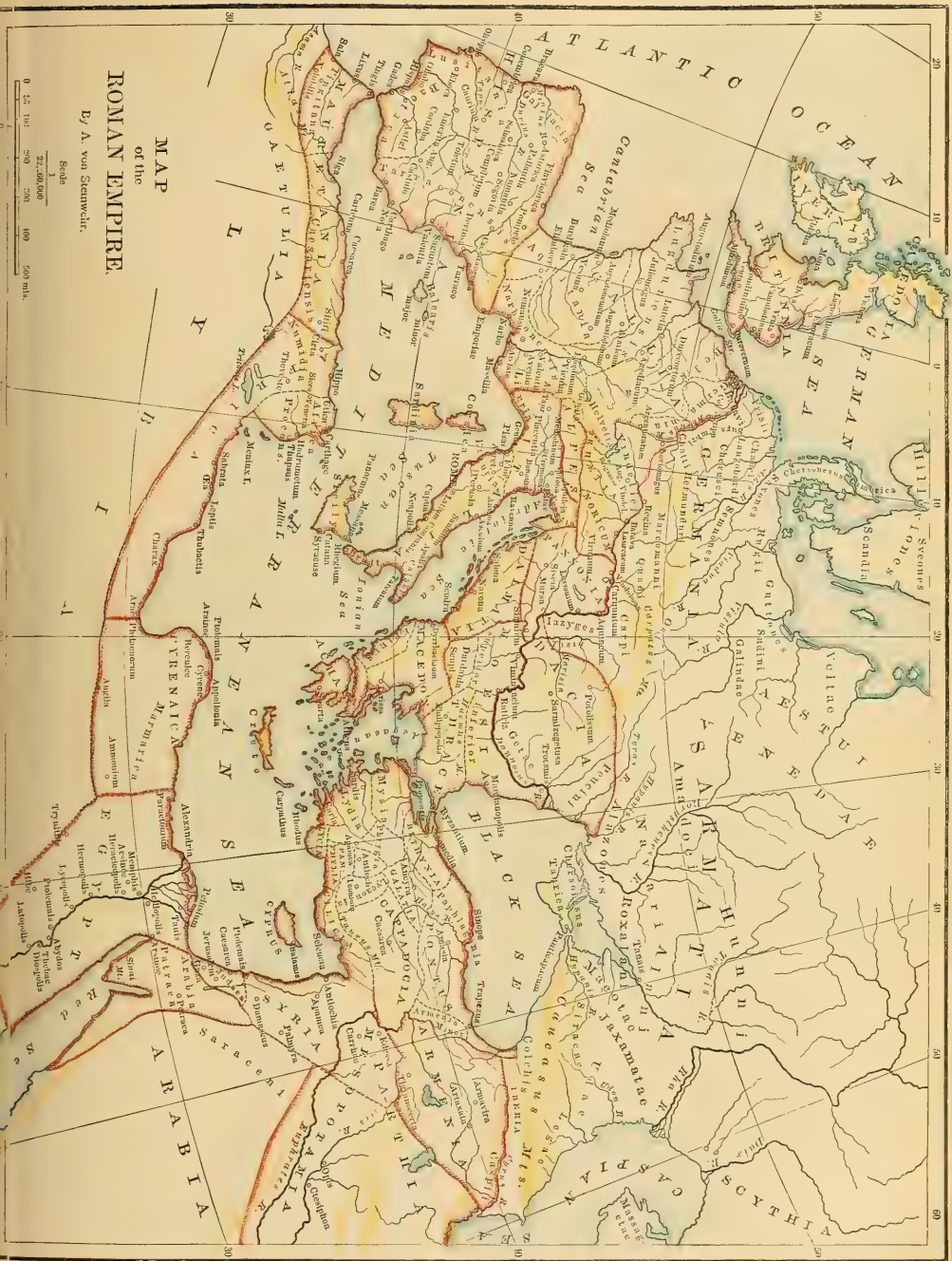
# MAP of the ROMAN EMPIRE.

By A. von Steinwehr.

Scale

25:40,000

0 25 50 100 150 200 250 Miles.





Horace, and Ovid. Virgil composed the *Æneid*, an epic poem with patriotic substance

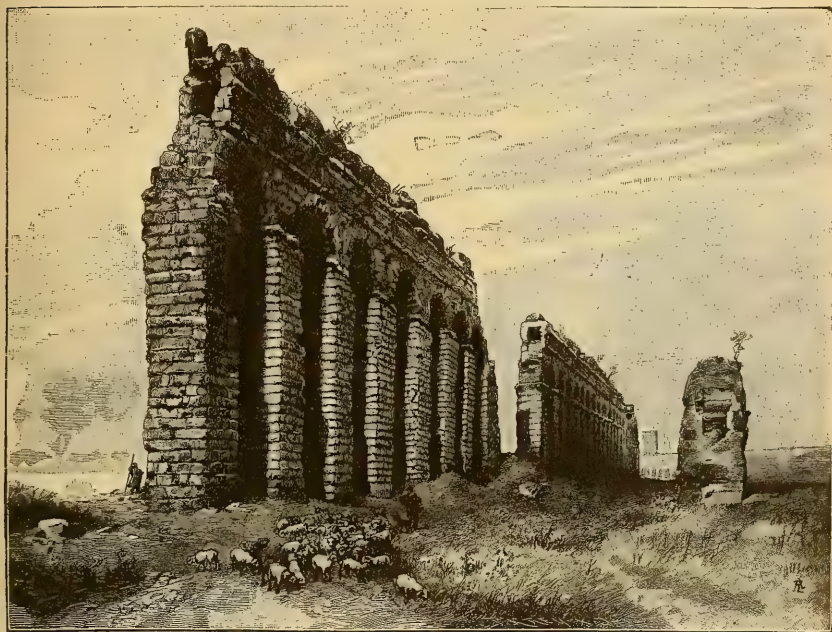
*Virgil*, and inspiration, modelled after the *Iliad* of Homer. He composed also

† 19 A. D. pastoral poems in the spirit of Theocritus, and a didactic poem upon farming, in which the old Roman love of country life found hearty expression. Horace, to whom his patron Mæcenas presented a small estate in the Sabine country, published

*Horace*, odes, satires, and humorous epistles, in which he set forth his cheerful

† B. C. S. views of life, with grace and wit. He lived contentedly a modest, independent life, which he preferred to the splendor of the great world.

Ovid, the composer of mythological tales, was banished by Augustus, to the mount-



ROMAN AQUEDUCT. (*Campagna, Rome.*)

*Ovid*, ains near the Black Sea. There he wrote his *Tristia* or poetic

† 17 A. D. complaints.

Lucretius Carus was the most gifted of the older poets, and won eternal renown, by his poem on "The Nature of Things" in which he has represented poetically the views of Epicurus. Among the younger poets are to be mentioned Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius. Phædrus, author of the well-known fables, was a Thracian slave, to

*Sallust*, whom Augustus gave his freedom. Among the historians, the most

B. C. 50. famous was Sallust, who, in his "War of Jugurtha" and his "Conspiracy of Cataline," sketched a faithful but a terrible picture of that degenerate time.



*Livy.* Titus Livius wrote, in one hundred and forty-two books, of which *B. C. 59 to 17 A. D.* thirty-five are extant, a complete history of Rome, in which he cared



PLAN OF ROME. (Time of Augustus.)

more for vivid and powerful representation, than for critical accuracy. From Cornelius Nepos, we possess a biography of Pomponius Atticus; while the biographies of distinguished men that are attributed to him, were written by a subsequent author. The Romans imitated the Greeks in art and literature, but remained far behind them.



VIRGIL. (Capitoline Museum, Rome.)

Of the lyrical inspiration which the Greeks possessed, we find no trace among the Roman writers. Greek authors not unfrequently chose for a subject the history of Rome; thus Polybius, the contemporary of Livy, wrote a history of the Punic Wars, and Dionysius, of Halicarnassus, composed a Roman Archæology. For the geography of the Ancients, Strabo's description of the earth, gives us copious and valuable information.

## 2. THE FIGHT OF THE GERMANS FOR LIBERTY.

§ 150. Drusus, the valiant stepson of Augustus, was the first Roman to make conquests on the right bank of the Rhine. In many successful campaigns, he fought against the Suevi, between the Rhine and the Elbe, the Sicambri, the Brocteri, the Cheruski, and

others, and sought to secure the land for Rome by fortresses and entrenchments. Returning-home, he was thrown from his horse and fatally injured. His brother, Tiber-

**B. C. 9 to A. D.** ius, completed the conquest of West Germany, more by skilful negotiation with the discordant Germans, than by force of arms. The country, between the Rhine and the Weser, was henceforth governed by a Roman officer; and foreign customs, language and laws threatened to destroy the German territory. German warriors fought in the Roman ranks, and wore proudly Roman decorations. But the rashness and daring of the Roman governor, Quintilius Varus, aroused among the German tribes their slumbering sense of freedom. Led by the bold prince of the Cheruski, Hermann, (Arminius) who had served in the Roman army, several tribes united to shake off the foreign yoke. The careless governor was warned in vain by Segest, whose daughter, Thusnelda, had been carried off by Hermann, and married against her father's will. Varus, with three legions and many auxiliaries, was decoyed into the Teutoburger forest, where he was so com-

**A. D.** pletely defeated by Hermann's army, that the woods were covered far and wide with the corpses of the Romans. Their eagles were captured, and Varus killed himself in despair. The Germans took fearful revenge upon their foes, and slaughtered many of their prisoners at the altars of their gods. Many a Roman, from an aristocratic family, grew old, as the herdsman or servant of a German peasant.



AUGUSTUS. (Statue in Vatican.)

Augustus, at the news, cried in desperation "Varus, give me back my legions!" and thought afterward not of conquest, but of guarding only the Rhine frontiers.

§ 151. Augustus died in his seventy-sixth year, at Nola, in Lower Italy. In the  
14 A. D. same year, Germanicus, the son of Drusus, crossed the Rhine, once



OLD ROMAN SCHOOL.

more ravaged the land of the Chatti (Hesse), buried the bleaching bones of the Romans in the Teutoburger forest, and carried off into captivity Hermann's brave-minded wife, Thusnelda, whom her angry father had surrendered to the foe. But although the Roman general, who was accompanied by his noble wife Agrippina, the grand-daughter of Augustus, defeated the

allied Germans in two battles, and although Germany was hard pressed also from the sea-coast, nevertheless the Roman dominion acquired neither strength nor duration on the right bank of the Rhine. Their boats were broken by storms, and their armies perished from fatigue, and from the sword of the Germans. And when at last, Germa-

19 A. D. nicus was recalled by his envious uncle Tiberius, who succeeded Augustus as emperor, the Germans were no longer troubled by the Roman lust for conquest. The allies of Hermann thereupon attacked the Marcomanni. These were led by Marbode, and gave the Romans opportunity to harass Germany from the south. Marbode was driven from the land, and took refuge with the Romans, who maintained him for eighteen years in Ravenna. Hermann was murdered by his jealous friends. His deeds are still celebrated in song, and in our time a colossal statue, in memory of him, was erected at Detmold. Thusnelda died a Roman prisoner. Her son, born to her in captivity, was brought up as a gladiator at Ravenna. The daughter of Germanicus, the younger Agrippina, laid the foundation for the prosperity of Cologne. (Colonia Agrippina.)



HERMANN.

§ 152. *Tacitus on the Manners and Institutions of the Germans.*—About a





GERMAN VICTORY FEAST AFTER BATTLE. (*H. Vogel.*) (pp. 215.)

hundred years after Augustus, the historian, Tacitus, composed the "Germania" a description of the German territory and its inhabitants: of their customs, institutions, and modes of life. The same writer, in his annals and histories, had written the story of the early empire: and in those works displayed a profound knowledge of human nature, great courage, and art. He wrote the "Germania," probably, to contrast the natural life of the barbarian, with the refinement and corruption of the civilized Roman. It is a golden little book, to which Germans and Englishmen



THE BATTLE IN THE TEUTOBURGER FOREST.

owe the first detailed knowledge of their forefathers. From Tacitus, we learn that Germany was inhabited by a large number of independent tribes, sometimes acting with, at other times warring upon each other: that these frequently changed their habitations, and were governed partly by tribal chiefs, and partly by republican forms. Besides the tribes dwelling between the Rhine and the Elbe, there were the Lombards west of the Elbe, the Marcomanni on the Danube and in Bohemia, the Vandals between the Oder and the Vistula, the Suevi and the Burgundians in Silesia, the





GERMAN FUNERAL SACRIFICE. (*W. Lindenschmidt.*)

(pp. 217.)



Goths, the Saxons, the Angles, and the Frisians, with many others. The chief occupations of the Germans were hunting and war. Cities and castles they never built: their barns and huts were scattered about in the midst of their estates, for they hated



GERMAN WEILER OR HOME.

a quiet life within doors. Important matters were treated of in public assemblies of the people, where all the free-holders of a given district assembled under arms. These assemblies decided peace and war, appointed commanders, governors, and priests, received the young men into the company of braves, and established laws to guide the administration of justice. Certain distinguished chiefs gathered about them voluntary bands, who accompanied them to the field, and had a share in the booty. These comradeships, based upon mutual fidelity, constituted the closest bonds between man and man. The Germans were of lofty stature, strong and brave and handsome. They combined purity of morals with hospitality; fidelity, and eloquence, with a reverence for women and for marriage. Their chief vices were drunkenness and gambling. Good morals produce good laws; they loved poetry and song, and handed down their poems orally. Alliteration and assonance, rather than rhyme and quantity, distinguished their verse. But they possessed the art of writing (runes) at an early period. As they marched to battle, they sung their war songs, partly to encourage themselves, partly to frighten their enemies. Bards, as they are called, were common among the Celts, but not among the Germans. The latter worshipped their gods, not in temples, but in gloomy forests and under sacred trees. Wodan or Odin, the archetype of heroic energy, was their supreme God and all-father. The twelve Asen supported him in the government of the world. Wodan's wife was Freia, who presided over all marriages (Friday—Freia's day). Her sons Thor, the Thunderer (Thursday—Thor's day), Tiu, the God of War (Tuesday—Tiu's day), and Balder, the God of



THOR.

Thor, the Thunderer (Thursday—Thor's day), Tiu, the God of War (Tuesday—Tiu's day), and Balder, the God of

light, were also worshipped. Death on the battle-field, was the most honorable to the Germans. The fallen heroes expected a happy life in Valhalla, while those who died a bloodless death, lived a shadowy life in Hela's realm. Human sacrifices were quite frequent among them. Criminals, captives, and slaves were offered to the gods.

### 3. THE EMPERORS OF THE JULIAN HOUSE.

§ 153. The life of Augustus was darkened by domestic sorrow. The sons of his daughter Julia died in their youth, and Julia herself, by her immoral life, compelled her father to banish her from Rome. This brought the empire into the hands of Tiberius, the adopted stepson of Augustus. The new emperor was sagacious but misanthropic, and reached the throne by the intrigues of his mother Livia, the third wife



EMPEROR TIBERIUS. (*Enlarged from a coin.*)

of Octavianus. Like Augustus, Tiberius did not disturb the traditional forms of state, and spared the prejudices of the Romans; but we learn from the history of Tacitus, that his original mildness soon

*Tiberius,* yielded to his despotic inclinations, especially when

14-37 A. D.

his cunning and vicious favorite, Sejanus, helped him to found a military tyranny. He suggested the formation of the Prætorian guards into a single body. In this way the troops, who had hitherto scattered in detachments, could be used to oppress the people. The popular assemblies ceased to convene, and the cowardly senate degenerated into a tool of the monarch. The terrible treason-courts were an instrument for the destruction of any important citizen, especially as men were punished, not simply for their deeds, but for their speeches and for expressions of republican sentiments. Spies undermined fidelity and loyalty among the people, and destroyed



PRÆTORIAN GUARDS.

the last spark of freedom. Germanicus died suddenly in the East, it was believed of poison, and his wife Agrippina, and the other members of his family were, in a few

years, the victims of Sejanus. The empire was visited also by fire and earthquake, which destroyed many of the most beautiful and wealthy cities of Asia Minor. A



ROMAN DENARIUS. (*Time of Tiberius.*)

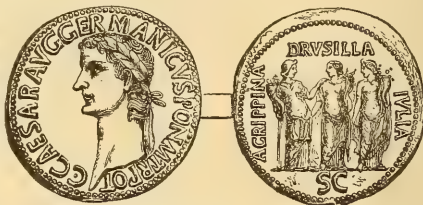
crowded amphitheater in Fidenæ fell to the ground. The last years of his life Tiberius spent in the island of Capri, in Lower Italy. He distrusted, feared, and despised the world, and permitted Sejanus to commit all manner of crime, even to the destruction of his own son Drusus. When the favorite finally sued for the hand of

31 A. D.

the widow of Drusus, and manifestly intended to depose Tiberius himself, the senate was commanded to put him to death. Tiberius, bowed down with age and illness, started for Rome, but in lower Italy he became unconscious; and some of his companions hailed his great-nephew Caligula as emperor. Tiberius, however, revived, whereupon the frightened friends of Caligula smothered him to death with pillows. Tiberius was in his seventy-eighth year.

37 A. D.

§ 154. His successor, Caligula, was the unworthy son of the noble Germanicus, and the high-minded Agrippina.



COIN OF CALIGULA.

*Caligula,*  
37-41 A. D.

to sign death-warrants, a see them executed; a mad spendthrift, who projected the absurdest buildings; a haughty braggart, who celebrated



AGRIPPINA THE YOUNGER. CLAUDIUS. LIVIA.

TIBERIUS. (*Onyx Gem.*)

*Claudius,*  
41-54 A. D.

him trembling on the throne. He soon became the plaything of courtiers and of women. His favorites, especially the freed men Narcissus and Pallas, obtained

triumphs over Germans and Britons whom he had hardly seen, and decreed himself divine honors; a glutton, whose table swallowed up enormous sums. Certain noble Romans, tired of executions, confiscations, and outrage, formed a conspiracy, in consequence of which, two captains of the guards murdered the crazy tyrant in the imperial palace. The Prætorians then dragged his uncle, the feeble Claudius, from his hiding place, and set



the most important offices, and great riches at the expense of the people, while his wife Messalina abandoned herself to wanton lust. The emperor finally decreed her execution, and then married his wicked niece, the younger Agrippina, who soon hurried the weak old man out of the world, in order to place her son, Claudius Nero, on the throne.

§ 155. Nero, at the beginning of his reign, showed great gentleness. He wished that he had never learned

*Nero,* to write, that he might not sign a death

54-68 A. D. warrant. But in a little while his mildness turned to cruelty. He persecuted and executed and



COIN OF LAODICEA.



NERO.

confiscated even among his own adherents and relatives. His step-brother, Britannicus, died of poison at the imperial table; his mother he tried to drown, and when she escaped, he delivered her to the hands of assassins; his virtuous wife Octavia, daughter of Claudius, was banished to a lonely island, where she died a violent death. The poet Lucan, the author of the epic *Pharsalia*, and the philosopher Seneca, the teacher of Nero, were driven to destruction. Urged on by courtiers and courtesans, Nero committed incredible crimes and follies. Plays and processions, in which he himself took part as singer and musician, luxurious banquets and wild expenditures of every sort, consumed the revenues of the state. A great conflagration at Rome was said to have been kindled, by the despot, so that he might sing "The Burning of Troy" from the roof of his palace. And then, to divert the popular hatred from himself, he charged the crime upon the Christians, who suffered consequently the most terrible persecution. The rebuilding of the city, and Nero's golden house on the Palatine, so increased taxation, that an insurrection followed; and when the Spanish legions, under Galba, approached the capital, Nero fled to his



ROMAN LICTOR, EMPEROR AND NOBLE.



TITUS FLAVIUS VESPASIANUS.

legions were joined by the troops in Mœsia and Dalmatia. As Vespasian's army approached the gates of Rome, a brief civil war occurred, in which the temple of the

villa, and had himself put to death by a freedman. In him expired the house of Augustus.

§ 156. The aged Galba was too miserly to satisfy the greed of the Prætorians. They proclaimed Otho

<i>Galba,</i>	emperor, and murdered
<i>Otho,</i>	Galba and his
<i>Vitellius,</i>	appointed successor.

**68-69 A. D.** At the same time

Vitellius marched, with his legions, from the Rhine to Italy, and conquered the armies of his adversary. Otho, and many of his adherents, died by their own hand. Vitellius was a glutton of vulgar mind, who spent his short reign in riotous banquets and violent oppression. His conduct embittered the Syrian and Egyptian legions, which finally proclaimed, as emperor, their brave commander, Flavius Vespasian. The



THE COLOSSEUM AT ROME.

capital was destroyed. But Vitellius was killed by a mob of brutal soldiers, who cast  
 69 A. D. his mutilated body into the Tiber. The hardened people, in the midst



ROMAN SOLDIERS ATTACKING A CITY.

of these cruelties, pursued their wonted pleasures, and abandoned themselves to the silliest superstition.



DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM.

#### 4. THE FLAVIANS AND THE ANTONINES.

§ 157. Vespasian is the first of the good emperors. He restored the discipline



**Vespasian.** of the army and of the Prætorian guards, abolished the treason-courts, improved the administration of justice, and filled the state treasury by economy and sagacity. He built the temple of peace, and the Colosseum, whose ruins still excite the admiration of the traveler, brought back the Batavians of the lower Rhine to their obedience, and enlarged the borders of the empire, by the conquests of Judea and of Britain.

§ 158. The oppressions of the Roman officers who governed Judea, especially the cruelty and greed of Gessius Florus, drove

**Jerusalem**

**Destroyed.**

**70 A. D.**

the people finally to rebellion. They fought with the courage of desperation, but were conquered by the Roman legions and forced into Jerusalem, which was besieged at first by Vespasian, and then after-



HEAD OF TITUS. (From a coin.)

ward by his son Titus. The crowded city was so wasted by pestilence and starvation, that thousands plunged into the grave. Titus offered pardon in vain; rage and fanaticism urged the Jews to a desperate struggle. They defended their temple, until the magnificent building broke into flames, and death in every form raged among the vanquished. The victory of Titus was followed by the complete destruction of Jerusalem. Among the prisoners that followed the victorious chariot of the Roman, was the Jewish historian Josephus. The triumphal arch of Titus still standing in Rome, shows pictures of the Jewish sacred vessels, that were

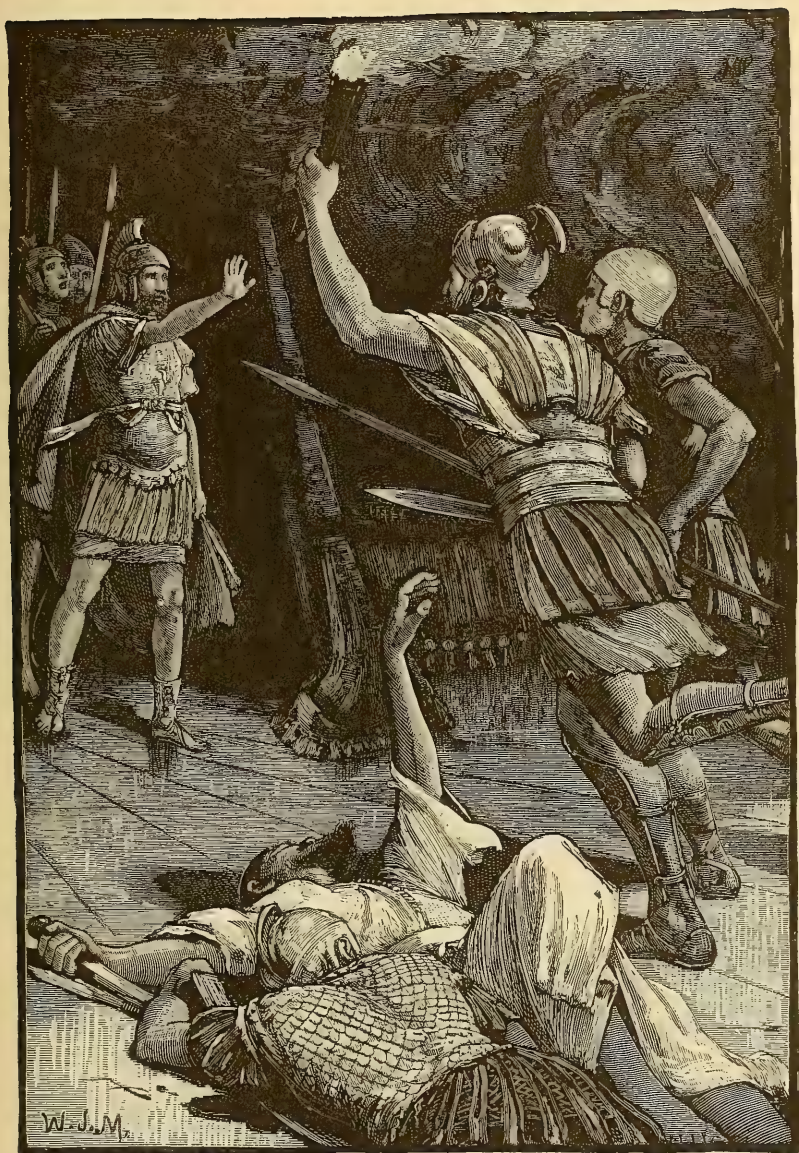
carried to the city. The Jews who were left at home, suffered terribly from Roman rule. But sixty years after the destruction of Jerusalem, Hadrian established a pagan colony on its sacred soil, which was called ALIA CAPITOLINA: and erected on the heights, where the temple of Jehovah had been built by Solomon, a temple to Jupiter. The exasperated Jews, led by the fanatical Simon, "son of the star," took arms again to prevent this insult. In a murderous war of three years, in which half a million inhabitants were slaughtered, they were conquered by the Romans. The survivors wandered out in throngs. The land resembled a desert, and



COIN OF VESPASIAN.

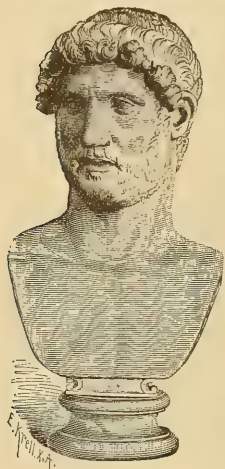


JEWISH COIN. (Head of Titus.)





the Jewish commonwealth came to an end. Since then the Jews live scattered over the whole earth, faithful to their customs, their religion, and their superstition; but wholly separate from other peoples. Subsequently, the exiles were allowed, once a year, on payment of a certain sum, to weep over the ruins of their sacred city.



HADRIAN.

§ 159. During the reign of Vespasian, Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, conquered Britain as far as the Scotch highlands, and introduced Roman institutions, customs, and speech. Britain remained subject to the Romans 400 years. The religion of the Druids yielded gradually to Roman paganism, and the foreign civilization struck root in the land. But the warlike strength of the people was weakened by this contact with the Romans, so that the Britains were unable to resist the rough Picts and Scots, from whom the wall, erected by Hadrian, was not sufficient to protect them.

§ 160. The plain but powerful Vespasian was succeeded by his son Titus. The faults and sins of his youth were laid aside by the new emperor, and he earned for himself the splendid name "Love and Delight of the Human Race."

79 A. D. During his reign, Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed by the eruption of Vesuvius. Pliny, the elder, lost his life in this eruption, as we learn from a letter

of his nephew to the historian Tacitus. The excavations made at these buried cities, especially at Pompeii, have been of immense importance to our knowledge of antiquity, and to the art of our own times.

§ 161. This noble prince was followed, unfortunately, by his cruel son, Domitian, a morose and gloomy tyrant, who found pleasure only in fights of wild-beasts and of gladiators. Finally, at the instigation of his wife, the beautiful, brilliant, but immoral Domitia, he was murdered by the companions of his lusts and cruelties. Nerva, an aged Senator,

Nero,

now ascended the

96-98 A. D.

throne. He adopted

the energetic Roman soldier Trajan, who was born in Spain, and appointed him his successor. Trajan earned for himself, by his domestic government, the surname of "The Best," and by

Trajan,

98-117 A. D.

his warlike deeds, the fame of the greatest of emperors. He estab-

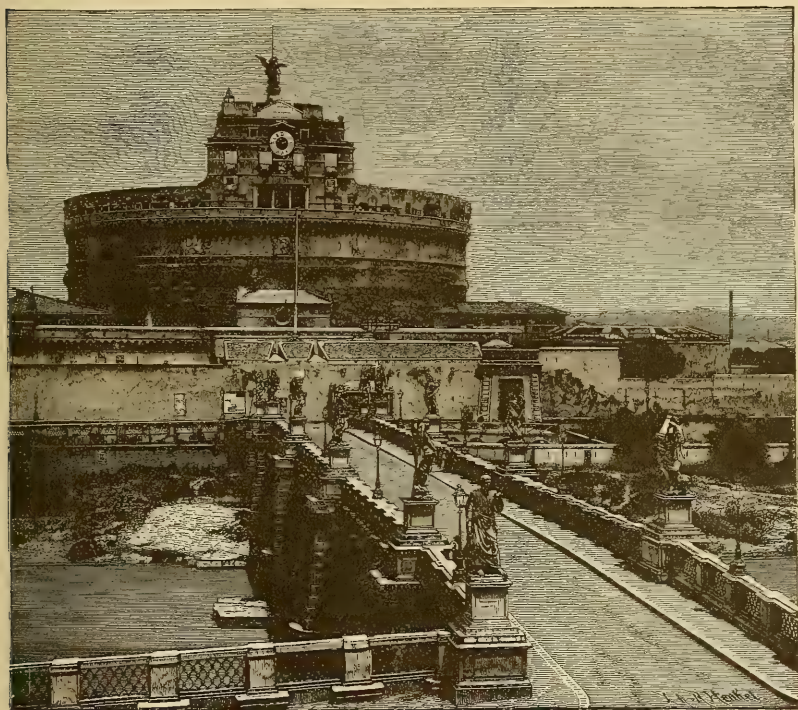
lished justice, facilitated commerce by the building of highways and harbors, (Civitatevecchia) adorned Rome with public buildings, temples, and



COINS OF HADRIAN.



a new forum, where the senate and the people erected, to his honor, the still existing column of Trajan. At the same time he conquered the war-like Dacians on the Danube, founded the province of Dacia, and settled it with Roman colonists. In the East he made war upon the Parthians, conquered Babylon and other cities, and transformed Armenia and Mesopotamia into Roman provinces. The country, from the sources of the Danube to the Black forest, was given to Gallic and German colonists, and protected against hostile invasions by a pale and trenches. It was called Titheland, because the inhabitants gave a tenth part of the corn, fruit, and cat-



MAUSOLEUM OF HADRIAN.

tle that they raised, to the Roman government; and the ruins of several cities and the excavated antiquities, show that they shared in Roman culture. The most important cities in Titheland were Constance on the lake, Baden-Baden (*Aquæ Aureliæ*), at the foot hills of the Black Forest, and Ladenburg on the Neckar.

Trajan honored culture, and loved the society of intellectual men like the historian Tacitus. Pliny, the younger, was honored by him with a consulate, and appointed governor of Bithynia. The latter, in a solemn panegyric, described for posterity









the excellencies and the achievements of his imperial friend. The correspondence between Pliny and Trajan, give valuable notices of the care with which the emperor managed the administration of the provinces.

§ 162. Trajan's relative and successor, Hadrian, paid more attention to the defence, than to the extension of the imperial borders, and found more pleasure in art, and literature than in war. He was a sagacious and cultivated statesman, eager to increase the royal power, but vain and easily flattered. His love of knowledge and of art, led

*Hadrian,*

him to undertake long journeys at first to the East, where he spent much time in Greece, Asia, and Egypt, and then to the West, to visit Gaul, Spain, Britain, and the regions of the Rhine. Among the writers, artists, and

orators of his court, the most important was the Greek Plutarch, the author of the contrasted biographies of Greek and Roman generals and statesmen. These are especially calculated to excite admiration for the heroic deeds, and the lofty purposes of antiquity. The ruins of his villa at Tiber, his colossal monument, the mound of Hadrian in Rome, and numerous remains of buildings and of statues, bear witness to Hadrian's love for art. His favorite Antinous, who was drowned in the Nile, he commemorated in many statues and monuments.

§ 163. Hadrian's adopted son, Antoninus Pius, was an ornament to the throne. He avoided war, because

*Antoninus Pius,* he would "rather

preserve one citizen than kill a thousand foes." He watched over the administration of justice, founded schools, and relieved poverty, so that his reign was the golden age of the empire. His suc-



MARCUS AURELIUS.

cessor, Marcus Aurelius, the philosopher, was as distinguished in war as in peace. He protected the Eastern frontiers against the Parthians, drove the German tribes of the league of the Marcomanni back across the Danube, and

*Marcus Aurelius,* defeated the Quadi in their own land. When, sometime afterward, they broke across the frontiers once more, he undertook a second campaign against them, and died at Vienna, before it terminated. He was a simple, strong man, who remained faithful, even on the throne, to the severe morality of the Stoics. His wife Faustina, the unworthy daughter of the pious Antoninus, and his adopted brother and co-regent Lucius Varus, were, by their vices, in striking contrast with the Emperor. He furthered culture and useful institutions: his noble maxims and purposes are re-

corded in his meditations, which he composed in the Greek language, and dedicated to himself. Monuments and statues preserved to posterity the memory of the wise and good prince. His bronze equestrian statue, and the Antoninus column, still adorn the city of Rome.

§ 164. The Roman empire rejoiced at this time in the highest civilization, morally corrupt as the people had become. Arts and sciences flourished in the courts of the emperors, and in the palaces of the rich, and among all classes. Commerce and industry prospered, and the dwelling houses in the populous cities bore witness of refinement and opulence. In Rome and in the more important cities of the provinces, schools were established. The ruins of buildings, highways, and bridges, which we find in Italy and in many provincial cities, the statues, sarcophagi, and altars, with their carvings and inscriptions, and the porcelain and bronze vases of artistic form, which are found buried in the earth, all give proof of the artistic feeling and the culture of the imperial age. But morality, nobility of soul, and strength of character, were no longer imposing, and freedom was an unknown good. The people, no longer hardened by war and agriculture, became weak and fond of luxury. They rejoiced in the barbarous fights of wild beasts and gladiators in the amphitheater, and abandoned themselves to the pleasures of the baths, with which the emperors provided the capital, in order to draw away the citizens from serious things. Perseus lashed



MARCUS AURELIUS LIBERATES THE CHIEF OF MARCOMANNI.  
(From Arch in Capitol, Rome.)

Perseus lashed

the degenerate race with the scourge of his satire, and sought to restore the old energy, morality, and simplicity. The brilliant Juvenal unveiled, in his faithful and realistic pictures, the deeps of crime and wickedness, to which his contemporaries had fallen. And the Greek Lucian in his witty writings, mocked

*Perseus.*  
34-62 A. D.



ROMAN CHARIOT RACE. (A. Wagner.)

*Juvenal.*  
100 A. D.

*Lucian.*  
† 200 A. D.

Paulus, are the classics of Roman legal lore.

## 5. ROME UNDER MILITARY RULE.

§ 165. Commodus, the son and successor of Marcus Aurelius, was a furious ruffian, of great size and strength, whose only pleasure was in fights

*Commodus.* with  
180-192 A. D. wild  
animals and with  
gladiators, who went  
himself into the  
arena, who oppressed the people in every way, until he was finally murdered by

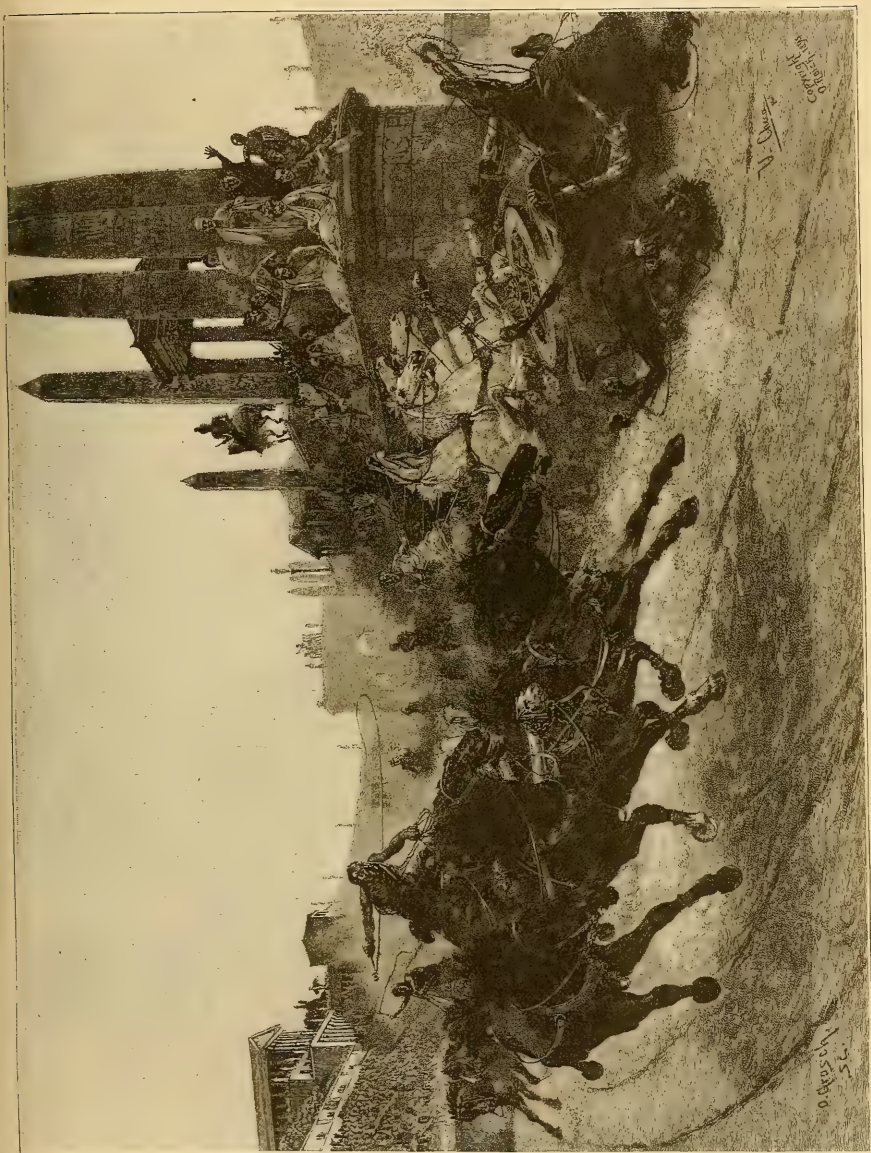
dence also reached great perfection in this period. The intricacy of public and of private life, and the lack of fidelity and honesty among the people, compelled the working out of legal rights in all their relations. The jurists of this age, Gaius, Papinian, Ulpian, and

all existing philosophy, religion, and life, hoping thereby to destroy the old and to make room for something newer and nobler. But all these wrote in vain; a higher power alone could save the decaying world. This power had already appeared, but the blinded Romans recognized it not, because it came not in the glory of dominion but in the garb of humility. Jurispru-



BULL FIGHT IN THE COLOSSEUM. (A. Wagner.)





CHARIOT RACE IN THE CIRCUS MAXIMUS. (V. Checa.)

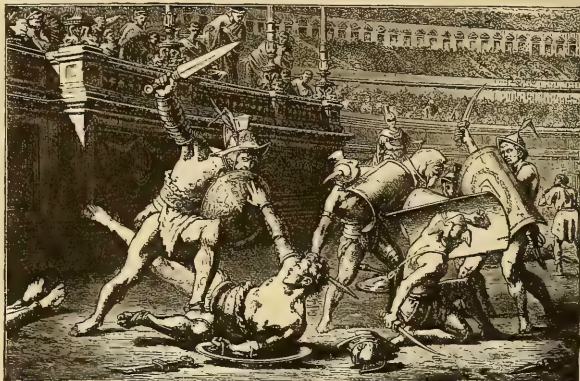
**Pertinax,** by those about him. Pertinax, a really able ruler, soon died a violent death. After his murder, the Prætorian guard became so insolent that they sold the imperial throne to the highest bidder. **Septimius Severus,** 193-211 A. D. was the first to restrain the violence of the soldiers by his implacable severity, and to restore the authority of the monarch. He was a rough warrior, who overcame his two rivals for the throne, and extended the empire by conquests in the East, where he deprived the Parthians of Mesopotamia. He protected the Britons, by a new line of intrenchments and fortifications, against the Picts and Scots, but he robbed the senate of its remaining power, and put his whole confidence in his army. He thus became the founder of military rule. To commemorate his deeds in Mesopotamia, he erected the triumphal arch, which is still to be seen at the entrance of the Forum.

§ 166. Septimius Severus died at York (Eboracum), in Britain. His cruel son, Caracalla, true to his father's teachings, favored only the soldiers, treating all other men with contempt. He murdered his brother Geta, who, by his father's will, was to share the throne with him; he put to death his teacher, the great jurist Papinian, be-

**Caracalla,** cause the latter refused to justify the murder. In order to increase the taxes, and to obtain great sums of money to defray his great expenditures, he gave the right of citizenship to all the freedmen in the Roman empire.



A NAUMACHIA, OR MOCK SEA FIGHT. (A. Wagner.)

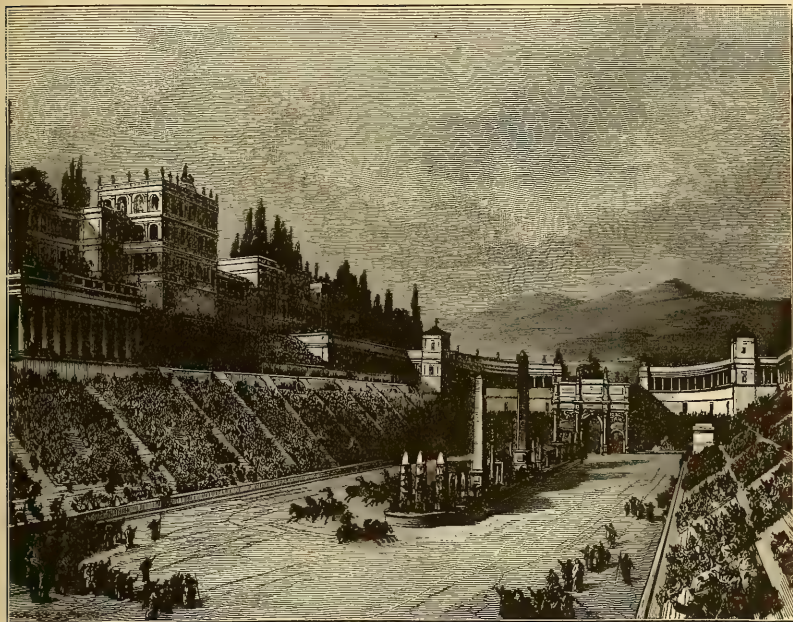


GLADIATORIAL COMBAT. (A. Wagner.)



The colossal ruins of the "Antonine baths" with their arches, halls, and chambers, are still standing in the south of Rome;—a speaking witness to this great extravagance.

**Heliogabulus,** He was finally murdered. His successor Heliogabulus, a priest of the Syrian sun-god, was a weak and cruel profligate, who introduced the service of Baal into Rome, and thereby destroyed the last remnant of old Roman morality. The "God of Emesa," a black conical stone set with precious jewels, received a sanctuary on the Palatine hill, and was worshiped by Syrian women in sensual dances, while the Roman senate, arrayed in Asiatic costume, performed the temple service. The wanton weakling was finally killed by the Prætorians, who

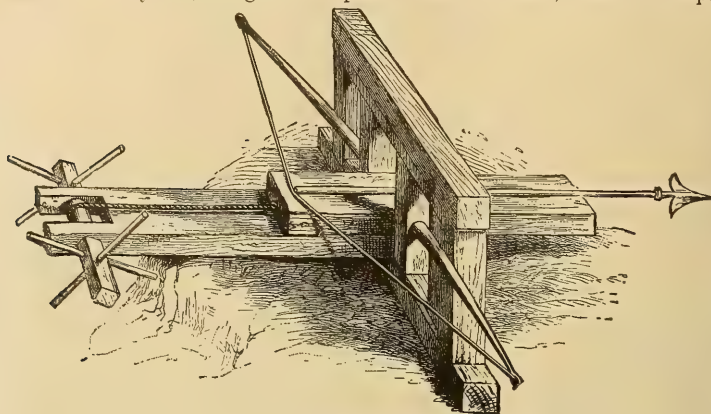


CIRCUS MAXIMUS, ROME. (*G. Rehlinger.*)

**Alexander Severus,** gave the throne to his cousin, Alexander Severus. The latter was a man of pure morals, who listened to his intelligent mother Mammæa, a woman favorably inclined to Christianity. But Alexander proved too weak for his difficult circumstances; before his eyes the Prætorians murdered their prefect, the great jurist Ulpian, over whose severity they were greatly embittered. Artaxerxes, on the Eastern frontier, overthrew the Parthians, and established the new Persian kingdom of the Sassanides. These now invaded the Roman provinces. They revived the old Persian worship of the sun, and of fire, and sought to awaken in their people patriotic feeling and national ideals.



§ 167. The murder of the Emperor and of his mother, by rebellious soldiers at  
 235 A. D. Mayence, brought the empire into such confusion, that twelve emperors



ROMAN BALLISTA.

were made and unmade in twenty years. Philip Arabs who, like Alexander Severus,

244-249 A. D. was a friend of the Christians, sought to make his reign memorable by a great festival, in honor of the thousandth anniversary of the founding of the city.

249-251 A. D. His successor Decius, a stern senator, and a man of old Roman morality and religion, persecuted the Christians, but was killed by the Goths, a German race, who had marched to the lower Danube, and were making incursions by land and water into the Roman empire. After his death, the dissolution of the empire seemed so near, that the historians of

*Gallienus*, that time speak of the

253-268 A. D. period during which Gallienus reigned in Rome, as the time of the thirty tyrants. The East was invaded by the new Persians, and the northern frontiers were threatened by the German tribes.

268-270 A. D. Claudius II. a skillful emperor, conquered the Goths in Pannonia, but perished from the plague.

§ 168. Aurelianus now became the restorer of the empire. He conquered the

270-275 A. D. disobedient generals, marched against the kingdom of Palmyra which had been founded by Odanathus, in a Syrian oasis, and governed, after his death, by



GERMAN STANDARD BEARER AND ROMAN GENERAL.



REVOLT OF THE PRAETORIAN GUARDS. (H. Leutmann.) (pp. 237.)

the beautiful and heroic queen Zenobia. The "City of Palms" beautiful for art, and

noted for its science and its commerce, was destroyed, and Zenobia led captive to Rome. Her teacher and counselor, the philosopher Longinus, died a violent death. The ruins of Palmyra still attract the interest of travelers. In the North, Aurelian restored the Danubian frontiers, but gave the province Dacia to his enemies, and transplanted the inhabitants to the right bank of the river. And to protect the capital from a sudden attack, he surrounded Rome with a circular wall.

§ 169. Aurelian was murdered by his soldiers. Tacitus, his successor, was killed in a campaign against the Goths.

*Tacitus,* Probus then came to the throne. He extended and

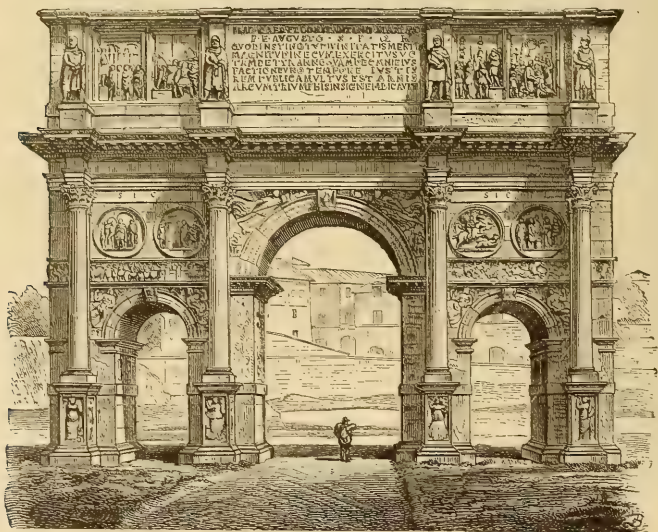
completed the frontier wall, from the

*Probus,* Bavarian Danube to the

276-282 A. D. Taunus. The traces of this wall are yet visible, and are called by the people "The Devil's Wall." He



ROMAN WARRIORS.



ARCH OF CONSTANTINE. (Rome.)



planted vineyards along the Rhine and in Hungary, and improved the military service. But he too was murdered by his soldiers; and his successor, *Carus*, 282-283 A. D. Carus, in a campaign against the Persians, was killed either by a stroke of lightning or an assassin's knife. *Diocletian*, the wise and skillful 284-305 A. D. Dalmatian, who by his bravery and intelligence had climbed from slavery to the command of the army, now ascended the throne.

§ 170. He abolished gradually all republican forms, and took away from the senate all political power. He then divided the empire, with a view to its better defence. He assumed for himself the title of Augustus, or chief emperor, and ruled, in person, the East together with Thracia. His lieutenant, *Galerius*, with the title "Cæsar," governed the Illyrian provinces. *Maximianus* received also the title Augustus, and the government of Italy, Africa, and the Islands, while his son-in-law *Constantius* (*Chlorus*, the Pale), governed as "Cæsar" the Western provinces, Spain, Gaul, and Britain.

*Diocletian* ruled the empire for twenty years, and restored it to strength and prosperity. But he was misled into a bloody persecution of the Christians, and thus stained the later years of his memorable and valuable life. The sword of persecution still raged among the disciples of the crucified Saviour, as *Diocletian* abdi-

305 A. D. cated the throne, in order to pass the last years of his life at his country house in Dalmatia, in peaceful leisure, and to forget the confusion of the world, in the decoration of his palaces and of his gardens. But

313 A. D. the storms that broke over the empire found their way to his retreat. His wife and daughter were murdered in the East, and he himself seems to have shortened his own life, in order to escape shameful outrage.

§ 171. A time of confusion and of civil war followed his abdication, and not until *Constantine*, the son of *Constantius Chlorus*, took upon him the government of the West, was this confusion ended. His mother *Helena* had won him over to Christianity, and, under the banner of the cross, he defeated the cruel *Maximianus* not far

312 A. D. from the Milvian bridge, and when his adversary was drowned in the



CONSTANTINE IN BATTLE. (*A de Neuville.*)

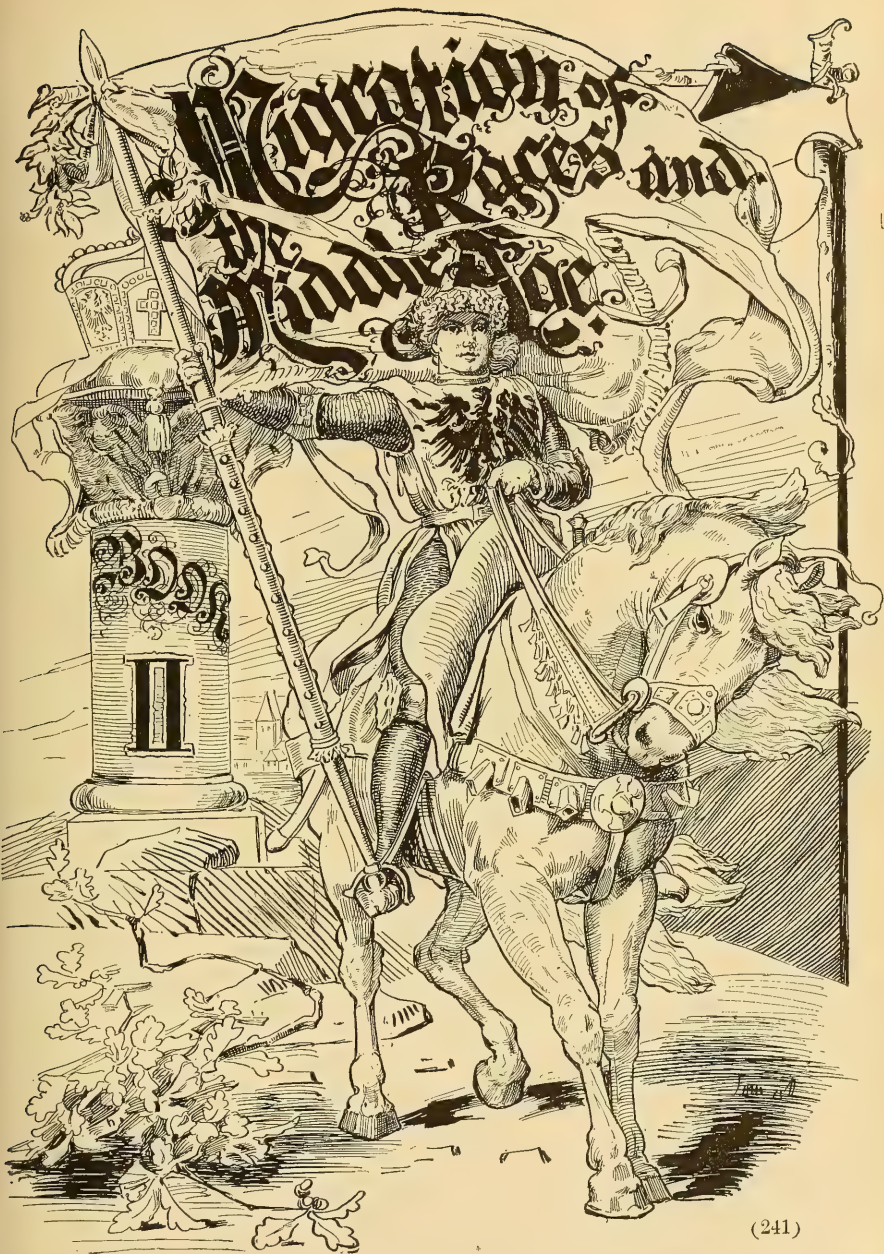
Tiber, he marched into Rome. From here he governed the West, while his brother-in-law, Licinius, governed the East. But his ambition soon occasioned a new war, in which Licinius lost the kingdom and his life. Thus Constantine became the sole ruler

325 A. D. of the Roman empire. He immediately issued the decree of Milan, in which he protected the confessors of Christianity from further persecution. Nevertheless, he caused throngs of captives to be thrown to the wild beasts, and put to death his wife Fausta, his noble son Crispus, and other relatives.

Conclusion. If we cast a glance back over antiquity, we easily perceive that our intellectual life and our culture struck root there. The East gave us our religious ideas; Greece gave us immutable models and rules for art; and Rome, by her jurisprudence, established human society in national, municipal, and private life, with such care and intelligence, that the overwhelming authority of Roman law is still perceptible in all the governments of the civilized world.



MEDAL OF CONSTANTINE.







SARACENIC ARMS. (*Musé d'artillerie, Paris.*)  
(pp. 242. )



## A. THE MIGRATION OF RACES

AND

## THE ESTABLISHMENT OF MONOTHEISM.

### I. THE TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY OVER PAGANISM.

#### 1. THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH OF THE FIRST CENTURIES.

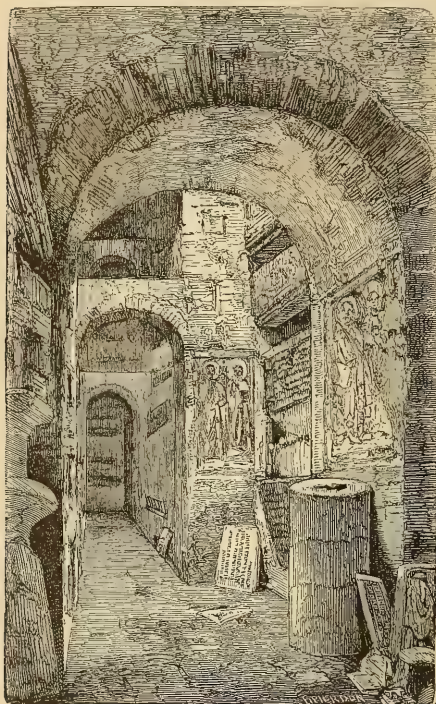
§ 172.



THE Romans were very tolerant of the religious of other peoples; they accepted not only the pantheon of the Greeks, but also the religious life of the Orient, of Chaldea, Persia, Egypt and Syria. But as Christianity admitted of no alliance with paganism, as the christians avoided anxiously all participation in the pagan festivals and pagan ceremonies, as they refused to serve in the army or to accept office under the state, the hatred of the people and the mistrust of rulers led to bitter persecutions of the believers in the gospel, who were to be found in all lands and in all ranks of society.

Ten persecutions are recorded from the days of Nero, when Peter and Paul are said to have been put to death, down to the first decade of the fourth century when Diocletian and Valerius drove the confessors of the crucified saviour by torture and axe to the sacrificial altar and burned their churches and their holy scriptures. Even Marcus Aurelius, the noblest of the Emperors, thought it necessary to break by force the obstinacy of these supposed fanatics; and the short reign of Decius is memorable for one of the most violent of all these persecutions. But the cheerful readi-

ness with which these martyrs bore pain and death increased the number of believers so that "the blood of the martyrs" was rightly called "the seed of the church." The persecuted hid themselves in subterranean galleries (Catacombs) among the graves of their beloved, in caves also and mountain gorges. Their afflictions intensi-



ROMAN CATACOMBS.

fied their faith in God; the number of apostates who delivered their bibles to be burnt or offered incense to the statues of the emperors was small indeed, compared with the stout-hearted confessors who held fast in life and in death to their baptismal oath, to fight manfully for God and Christ. The poor and oppressed, the weary and heavy-laden seized joyfully the message of salvation, which gave to the believer human rights, brotherly love and consolation in this life, took away also the sting of death, and destroyed the victory of hell. During the years of persecution Christianity, through its indwelling truth and favorable external circumstances, spread in all directions, so that in the third century, long before Constantine placed it under the protection and the favor of the State, it had crossed the frontiers of the Roman empire.

## 2. CONSTANTINE THE GREAT (325—337) AND JULIAN THE APOSTATE (361—363).

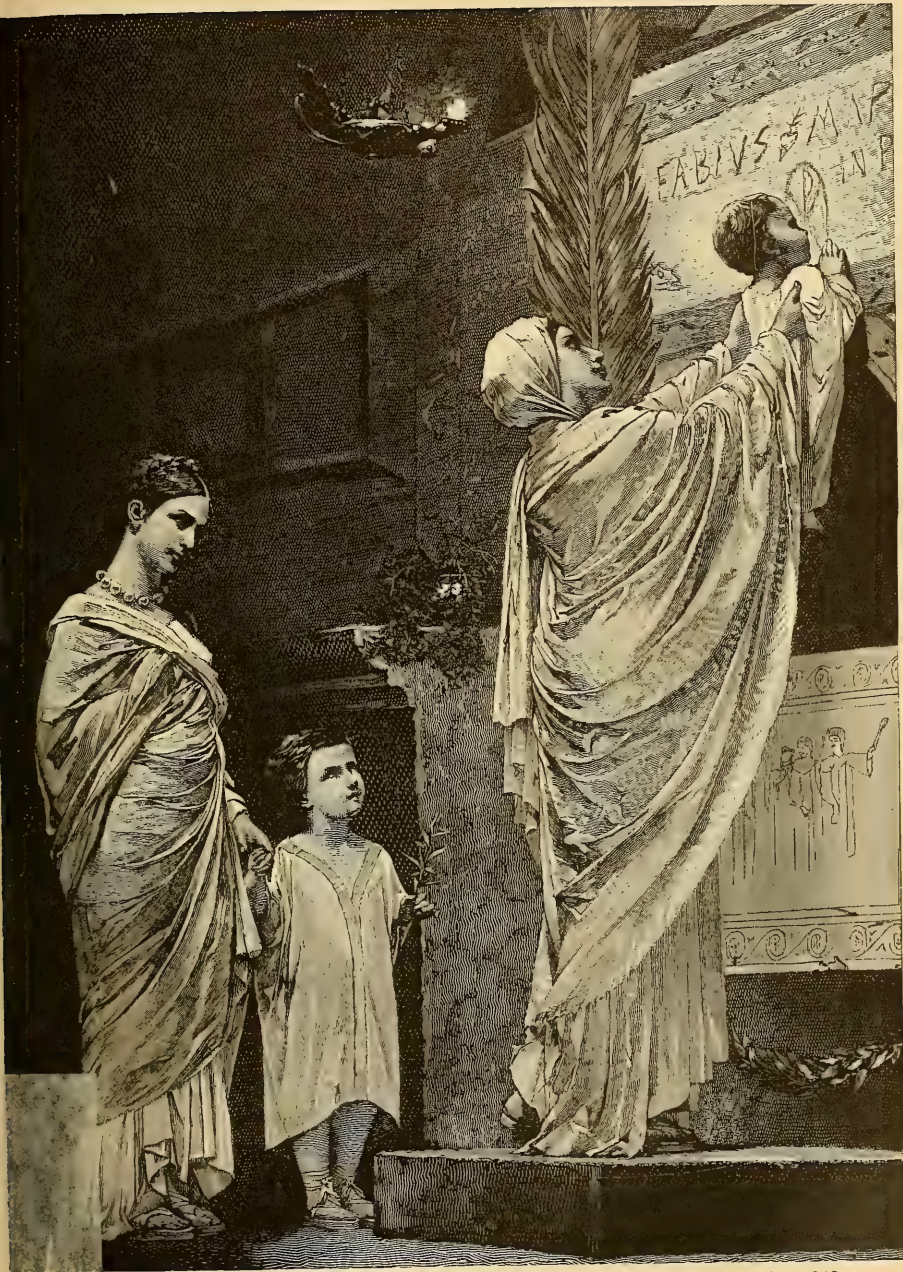
§ 173. CONSTANTINE, when he became sole ruler, removed the imperial residence to Byzantium which

from that time has been called Constantinople. This beautifully situated city he fortified with walls and towers and adorned magnificently with palaces and churches, with amphitheatres and works of art. He thereupon abolished the few remnants of the ancient constitution, surrounded himself with a brilliant court of chamberlains, ministers, court-officials and court servants and introduced a most oppressive system of taxation.

For the better management of the great empire he divided it into four prefectures—the *Orient* which included Thrace and Egypt, *Illyricum* which included Greece, *Italy* which included Northern Africa, and the *Occident* (Gaul, Spain, Britain).

Each of these was divided into dioceses, and these latter into provinces. The last years of his life Constantine devoted chiefly to religious and ecclesiastical affairs; but he postponed the baptism that was to cleanse him from all sin until a short time before





THE WIDOWS OF THE MARTYRS IN THE CATACOMBS.

( pp. 245. )

his death. He introduced the observance of Sunday and issued edicts concerning it: he founded many churches and endowed them with real estate from the public property: he gave the clergy freedom from taxation and other privileges; he conceded to the Bishops courts of their own; permitted legacies to be made to the church and finally prohibited Pagan sacrifices and festivals. The Christian Church began now to take new shape. The presbyters and bishops had been chosen hitherto by the church community and the principle of fraternal equality had prevailed among all Christians. But now the priesthood was separated from the people (clergy and laity), and a hierarchy was created in which the bishops of the principal cities, as metropolitans, presided over the other bishops, while the latter named the priests of their Sees and issued for them regulations. At the same time the church service, which at first consisted only of song, prayer, scripture-reading and love feast, was made more imposing by means of music and the other arts.



BYZANTINIAN DEACON, BISHOP AND LEVITE.

#### § 174. ARIANISM. AUGUSTINE. THE CHURCH FATHERS.

Christian doctrine, also, did not long retain its original simplicity and purity after many men made it the subject of investigation and reflection. The relation of Christ to God especially occupied their thoughts and they sought to fathom the mystery of his divine and human nature. In the time of Constantine violent conflicts arose between the Alexandrian preacher Arius and Alexander, his bishop. The former maintained that Christ, the son of God, was less than God, the Father, and depended upon him, while the latter, supported by his deacon Athanasius, affirmed that God the Son was of the same essence with God, the Father.

The first general council, which Constantine convened at Nicea, declared the view of Athanasius to be the doctrine of the Catholic Church and this in the course of time was elaborated into the dogma of the Trinity.

But the German races, Goths, Vandals, Lombards, who had received their Christianity from Arian missionaries continued to be Arians for centuries, and were on that account denounced and persecuted by the Catholic Church as heretics. A middle party, which taught that the Son was begotten of the Father from all eternity, but was of like essence only and subordinate to him, maintained its influence in the East for many years under the name of semi-Arians. Streams of blood were made to flow for the sake of these propositions so inscrutable to the human mind.

A no less important conflict arose in the fifth Century touching inherited sin and election by grace. Augustine, Bishop of Hippo in North Africa, maintained that human nature, through Adam's fall, had become unable to perform of its self any good thing, and that the ability to live rightly could be imparted only by the grace of



God. A small part of the human race was predestinated to salvation, while all others were abandoned to destruction. This stern teaching was opposed by Pelagius, a British Monk residing in Africa, who asserted that man may, by the power of his own will, do that which is good and be saved. After years of quarreling, a middle doctrine was favored, which aimed to satisfy both the laws of the church and the demands of a free moral intelligence.

The Christian writers of the first centuries were called the Church Fathers. Their works, are all the more important, because the traditional or inherited doctrine of the Catholic Church rests upon them. The nearer they are to the age of the Apostles, the greater is their authority, since it is assumed that the disciples of Jesus made many oral statements to their contemporaries, which are not to be found in the Apostolic writings and are perhaps discoverable in the Apostolic Fathers, the immediate successors of the Apostles. They wrote some in Greek, others in Latin. Among the

Greek fathers, the most eminent are the Alexandrian writers Clement and Origen, the champion of orthodoxy Athanasius, the founder of Church History Eusebius, and the eloquent preacher John Chrysostom (Gold-mouth) of Constantinople; among the Latins, Tertullian, Augustine and Jerome. The latter translated the Bible, and his version known as the Vulgate is the au-



COIN STRUCK BY THE SONS OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

thorized Bible of the Roman Catholic Church.

§ 175. Constantine had three vicious sons; these, according to their father's will, divided the empire between them. But in the year 337 after many deeds of violence and bloody struggles the empire fell to Constantius alone.



ALEMANNI CROSSING THE RHINE. (*A. de Neuville.*)

As he was himself busy in Asia he sent his cousin Julian to Gaul to protect the frontiers from the Germans. In the old tithe-lands (§161) on the Upper Rhine and near the sources of the Danube, the warlike Ale-



manni had won for themselves homes, which extended from Lake Constance to the river Lahn near Coblenz. Full of warlike energy, they tried to subjugate the lands

**337** beyond the Rhine and made incursions into Roman Gaul. Julian defeated the Alemanni at Strasburg, crossed the river twice, drove back the Franks from the Netherlands, and revived the ancient military glory of Rome. But the emperor recalled the best part of his troops to send them against the Persians. Julian remonstrated in vain. The legions, angry at their recall, rose in mutiny and, in his favorite city Paris, proclaimed their commander emperor. Julian was preparing himself for civil war when the death of Constantius at Tarsus gave him the throne without

**360** a bloody struggle. Unopposed he took possession of the imperial castle at Constantinople as the ruler of the mighty empire. He sent away at once all superfluous court-creatures, clothed himself in the greatest simplicity, lived frugally and abolished all useless pomp and parade. He established justice, restored the discipline of the army, and revived its martial virtue. But although he brought fresh vigor to the degenerate people, his zeal to re-establish paganism greatly impaired the success of his efforts.

The severity of the Christian teachers of his youth had developed in Julian a repugnance to the gospel while his vivid imagination, together with his love for Plato's philosophy (§§ 65, 72) and for the literature and poetry of the ancient world had made him an enthusiastic admirer of Paganism. Hence he was called, by the Christian writers, "Julian the Apostate." And yet he was too just and too sagacious to pursue the Christians with bloody persecution. He was satisfied to banish Christians from his presence and from the offices and schools of the state, to controvert their opinions in his writings, and to restore the pagan worship with its festivals and sacrifices. To the God of the Sun he himself sacrificed, sometimes, a hecatomb of steers with solemn ceremonies. Nevertheless, his endeavor to raise from the dead the corpse of paganism and to revive the customs and institutions of a vanished time, was a foolish enterprise. His last words were full of tragic meaning. He had undertaken a bold campaign against the New-Persians and urged his victorious army beyond the Euphrates and the Tigris, but enticed by the enemy into pathless mountain regions, had been compelled to retreat. A deadly arrow struck him, destroying his life and his creations. "Thou hast conquered, Galilean" was his dying confession.

*Jovian*

**363-364.**

*Valens* **364-378.**

*Valentinian*

**364-375.**

Jovian, the effeminate, was his successor. He surrendered at once the conquests of Julian and restored to Christianity her lost dominion. After his death the empire was divided, the Arian Valens ruling the east, while his brother, the rude warlike Valentinian I governed the west.



INHABITANTS OF GERMANY DURING THE  
3RD AND 4TH CENTURIES.

## II. THE MIGRATION OF RACES.

§ 176.

## 1. THEODOSIUS THE GREAT (379-395).



WHILE Valens was ruling the east there came from the steppes of central Asia a savage, ugly, well-mounted, nomad race, the Huns. They overthrew the Alani, subjugated the East-Goths, whose aged King Hermanric took his own life, and then attacked the West-Goths. These were Christians, having received the gospel from the Arian bishop Ulfilas, and therefore Valens gave them permis-

sion to cross the Danube, with their wives and children, and to occupy new homes. Bribing the Roman officials, the West Goths retained their arms contrary to the agree-

ment with the emperor, and when the cruelty and greed of the imperial governor brought them to the edge of starvation, they unsheathed the sword once more, stormed the city of Marcianopol, and marched plundering and devastating through the land. Valens bore down upon them promptly with his legions, but was defeated in the terrible battle of Adrianople, and



THEODOSIUS. (Gold Medal.)

lost his life in a burning hut to which he had fled for refuge. The victors, with exultant fury, now ravaged the defenceless land as far as the Julian Alps, and threatened even the frontiers of Italy. In this crisis Gratian, the son of Val-

*Gratian*

379-383.

entinian, chose the intrepid soldier Theodosius, then living in exile upon his estate in Spain, to be the ruler of the West. Theodosius soon brought the

*Theodosius*

379-395.

383.

war with the Goths to an end. A part of the enemy he settled in the lands south of the Danube, the rest he took as mercenaries into the Roman army. Soon after this Gratian, the chase-loving pupil of the poet Ausonius, was murdered in an uprising. Theodosius thereupon, having defeated

*Valentinian*

383-392.

the leader of the rebellion, Maximus, the governor of Gaul, in open battle, made Valentinian the younger, whose beautiful sister he had married, the ruler of the West.

But nine years later Valentinian was the sacrifice of a conspiracy, of which Arbogast the Gaul was the leader. Theodosius took the field against Arbogast and his anti-emperor Eugenius and defeated them at Aquileja. Arbogast took his own life and Eugenius was murdered just as he flung himself in the dust at the feet of the Emperor.



(pp. 250.)

THE HUNS. (A. de Neuville.)



Theodosius now united East and West, for the last time, under one scepter. He was a powerful but passionate prince; in Thessalonica, for example, he put to death 7000 citizens to revenge the murder of the governor by an angry mob. For this he was made to do penance by the fearless bishop Ambrose of Milan, and performed it willingly. This submission of the Emperor Theodosius was an acknowledgment of the intellectual and moral power of Christianity, which was able to punish and to restrain the misuse of imperial power. "Thus the church became the protector of popular liberty and saints assumed the parts of tribunes of the people."

Theodosius was a zealous champion of Catholic Christianity. He prohibited and persecuted Arianism, forbade sacrifices and predictions and permitted the pagan temples to be plundered and destroyed. The sacred fire of the Vestals now expired, the Oracles and Sibyls were struck dumb; the pagan Gods perished before the belief on the crucified Saviour. Only among the dwellers in remote country districts and mountain regions did the pagan faith and sacrificial service continue for any time, either openly or secretly, and it was soon despised by the cultivated as the religion of boors, (Pagani).

At his death Theodosius bequeathed the East with Illyria to his son Arcadius, a youth of eighteen, dependent upon his counsellor Rufinus of Gaul. To Honorius, a boy of eleven only, he gave the West, but placed him in charge of the sagacious statesman and skillful soldier, Stilicho. The Empire remained, from this time on, divided. The ruler of the West resided at Ravenna.

## 2. WEST GOTHs, BURGUNDIANS, VANDALS.

§ 177. Envy and jealousy of Stilicho drove the treacherous Rufinus to entice the daring Alaric, king of the West Goths, to attack the provinces of the Western empire. Ravaging and murdering bands devastated Thessaly, Middle-Greece and the Peloponnesus, trampling to ruin the remnants of Greek culture until they were surrounded by the armies of Stilicho in Elis and forced to retreat. Shortly after this Alaric,

who had been appointed meanwhile by the East-Roman court, the commander and governor of Illyria, invaded Upper Italy, devastated the banks of the Po, but suffered such losses in two battles with Stilicho



INROAD OF BARBARIANS.

that he was compelled to return to Illyria and to wait for better days. Hardly had he disappeared, when mighty throngs of heathen Germans, Vandals, Burgundians and Suevi under Duke Radagais broke into Italy, destroying cities and villages, and filling the land with pillage and murder. For these too

Stilicho's skill and bravery proved destructive. Their leader fell; thousands perished by the sword, by famine and by disease; others accepted Roman pay. The pieces of the army fell upon Gaul where the Burgundians, after repeated plunderings, settled along the Rhine and founded the Kingdom of Burgundy, which extended from the Mediterranean to the Vosges mountains. The Vandals and Suevi crossed the Pyrenees and conquered for themselves homes in Spain. The Suevi settled permanently in the Northwest but the Vandals, two centuries later, crossed the Strait of Gibraltar and settled in Northern Africa.



STILICHO PARLEYING WITH THE GOTHs.

§ 178. In his extremity, Stilicho had formed an alliance with Alaric, and promised him a yearly contribution of money. His enemies, especially the treacherous  
408. Olympius, accused him therefore of high treason, and brought about his execution in Ravenna. He sought protection at the sacred altars, but being





(pp. 253 )

THE VANDALS IN ROME. (H. Vogel.)



enticed away by treacherous promises, he was cut to pieces by a gang of murderers. Alaric thereupon was appealed to by the adherents of Stilicho. Enraged at the loss of his friend and of his money, he marched into Italy, besieged Rome, and compelled the frightened inhabitants to purchase mercy with gold, silver, and costly garments.

410. But when the court of Ravenna rejected his offers of peace, the Gothic chief appeared repeatedly before the walls of the city of Rome, finally took it by storm, and gave it over to his army for a three days' plunder. Not long afterward, Alaric died in Lower Italy; his coffin and his treasures are said to have been buried in the ground, under the waters of the river Busento. His brother-in-law, Athaulf (Adolph), made a treaty with Honorius, by which he became the husband of the beau-

412. tiful Placidia, the sister of the Emperor. He then led the West Goths into South Gaul, and founded the West Gothic kingdom that originally extended from

the Garonne to the Ebro, and had Tolosa (Toulouse) for its capital. But some years later, the Vandals having crossed over to Africa, the West Goths conquered all Spain. The Franks, however, compelled them to give up the district between the Pyrenees and the Garonne. Adolph was murdered while marching against Barcelona. Wallia succeeded

415. him; Placidia, treated unworthily by the enemies of her husband, returned to Ravenna, and was married a second time.

§ 179. Placidia's son, Valentinian III, succeeded his father Honorius. Ætius, a skillful soldier and able states-

Valentinian III. man, was his counselor. Bonifacius, the

425-455. governor of North Africa, being an enemy of Ætius, and fearing his wrath, rebelled against the empire

and called upon the Vandals, under their brave and cunning king Genseric, to come over from Spain to his assistance. He soon repented his folly, and opposed them with his soldiers when they came. But the Vandals conquered him, and took possession of

430. North Africa, where they established the Vandal kingdom, with Carthage as its capital. They then conquered Sicily and the

Balearic Islands, and spread terror through the islands and along the coasts, by

430. their piracy. Hippo (now Bona) was besieged, and St. Augustine,



COIN OF FIFTH CENTURY, SHOW-  
ING HEAD OF PAUL.



ATTILA, THE HUN.



THE HUNS AT AQUILEJA.

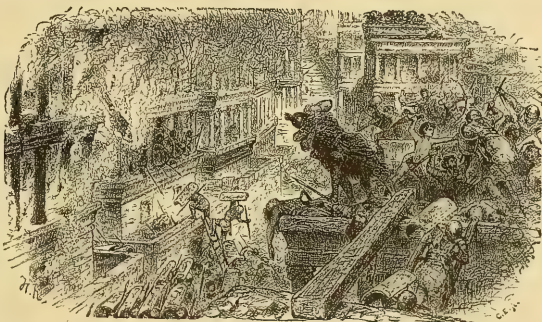
bishop of that city, died during the siege. Bonifacius was finally reconciled to the court of Ravenna, but soon afterward was killed in a fight against Ætius. The Vandal kingdom of North Africa lasted for one hundred years, in spite of frequent battles between the Arian Vandals and the Catholic Romans. Genseric died in 477.

### 3. ATTILA, KING OF THE HUNS.

§ 180. About the middle of the fifth century, Attila, "The Scourge of God," left his wooden capital, on the river Theiss, in Hungary, in order to conquer the West Roman Empire. More than half a million rude warriors, partly Huns, partly subject or allied Germans, marched across Austria and Bavaria, to the valley of the Rhine. They destroyed the royal family of Burgundy at Worms, ravaged the Roman cities and then marched plundering and murdering into Gaul. Ætius, with an army of

451. Romans, Burgundians, West Goths and Franks, met them at Chalons on the river Marne, and defeated them with terrible slaughter. One hundred and sixty thousand corpses covered the battle-field. The king of the West Goths was among the slain and the legend that the spirits of the defeated fought in the air above the survivors, attests the terrible fury of the battle. Attila defended himself against

452. his raging enemies, but withdrew to Pannonia, and in the following year again invaded Upper Italy. Aquileja was destroyed; Milan, Padua, and Verona besieged, and the fertile valley of the Po utterly wasted. The inhabitants of Aquileja sought safety in the rock and sand islands of the lagoons, and laid the foundations of Venice. Attila was about to enter Rome, but yielded to the entreaties of Bishop Leo I., who induced him to make peace with Valentinian, and to leave Italy. The gratitude for



STORMING AND SACKING A ROMAN TOWN.

this unexpected rescue was so great, that the withdrawal of the ravager of Italy was ascribed to the appearance of the apostle Peter, who stood with drawn sword at the side of his successor. Attila died suddenly in his Pannonian camp, either from a

453. hemorrhage, or at the hands of his Burgundian bride, with whom he had celebrated his wedding the night before. His death arrested the development of the kingdom of the Huns. The East Goths and the Longobards, after desperate struggles, conquered their independence, while the ruins of the kingdom of Attila, and of his army, were lost in the steppes of Southern Russia.

### 4. DESTRUCTION OF THE WEST ROMAN EMPIRE.

§ 181. The Roman dominion now hurried to its end. Valentinian killed with

454. his own hand the brave Ætius, the last support of the kingdom,

because he feared the greatness of the man and resented his independence. But he  
 455. soon lost his own life at the hands of Petronius Maximus, whose wife he had seduced. While reviewing his troops on the field of Mars in Rome, he was



CAPTIVE ROMAN MAIDEN SERVING BARBARIANS. (A. De Neuville.)

murdered by two conspirators, before the eyes of the people. Petronius having seized the throne, sought the hand of the imperial widow, Eudoxia. But she spurned the murderer of her husband, and determined to call in the Vandals to accomplish her



ROMAN EMPEROR AND COURTIER.

revenge. Genesic landed in Austria, conquered Rome, and permitted his soldiers to plunder the city for two weeks. Loaded with booty and captives, among them the empress and her two daughters, the Vandals returned to the coast of Africa, and carried on their piratical trade with greater boldness than ever. After some time Ricimer, the commander-in-chief of the foreign mercenary troops in Rome, a brave, astute, but blood-stained man, acquired such influence, that he ruled the kingdom until his death. He did not assume the imperial title,

463-472.

but set up and removed emperors at will. They were all instruments in his hands, even Anthemius, a relative of the Byzantine court, under whom East and West united in a campaign against

475. of Ricimer by the plague, Orestes, his ambitious general, placed the empty crown upon the head of his son Romulus Augustulus. The German soldiers of



the empire now demanded one-third of the soil of Italy. When this was refused them,

426. their leader Odoacer, put Orestes to death, took for himself the title of king of Italy, and made an end of the West Roman Empire. To the harmless Romulus Augustulus, he gave an estate in Lower Italy and a pension. Ten years later Chlo-

486. dowig, king of the Franks, conquered the Roman governor in Gaul.



ROMULUS AUGUSTULUS AND ODOACER. (*B. Mörling.*)

These two events laid the foundations for new conditions in Europe ; conditions based upon Christianity and German character.

§ 182. THEODORIC THE EAST GOTH.—Odoacer had been ruling for twelve years, when Theodoric, king of the East Goths, marched from the Danube into Italy, at the instance of the Emperor at Constantinople. Two hundred thousand warriors, with their wives, children, and possessions, followed him in long trains. Their numbers

489. were too great for Odoacer to resist. He entrenched himself behind the walls of Ravenna, but after a brave defence, which lasted for three days, he surrendered upon honorable terms. But a short time afterward, he was slain by the Goths, at a riotous banquet. Theodoric established his kingdom at Ravenna, and ruled with wisdom and justice, from the southern capes of Italy to the Danube. He respected ancient laws and institutions; he protected commerce, agriculture, and industry; reserved the conduct of war for himself and the Goths, and gave his soldiers a third part of the land. He appointed counts, from among his officers, to administer justice in disputes between the two peoples, and with sagacious tolerance maintained religious peace. Learning and culture shared in this protection, and cultivated Romans, like the historian, Cassiodorus, were appointed to important offices. In foreign countries, the renown of Theodoric was so great, that kings brought their differences to his judgment seat. Not until shortly before his death was he tempted to cruelty. Boethius and his father-in-law, Symmachus, were executed by him, because he suspected them of having urged the Emperor at Constantinople to drive the Goths out of Italy. Boethius composed in prison his famous "Consolations of Philosophy." This cruelty provoked the irreconcilable hatred of the Catholic Romans. The ashes of the "accursed heretic" were cast out of the colossal sepulcher, in Ravenna, and scattered to the four winds. Nevertheless, this "Dietrich of Berne," so celebrated in song and story, lives on in history, the lofty figure of a great and pacific German prince.

## 6 CHLODOWIG (CLOVIS) KING OF THE FRANKS AND THE MEROVINGS.

§ 183. The Franks lived anciently on the lower Rhine: they were a German tribe, a powerful people, who fought with spear and battle ax; bold, cunning, energetic. At one time they united several German tribes on the shores of the Rhine into a powerful league, known as the league of the Franks. Their oldest kings were Pharamund and Merovæus. When the cunning and courageous Chlodowig became their ruler, he led them forth to battle and to conquest. He overcame the Roman governor, Syagrius, at Soissons, took possession of the land between the Seine and the Loire, then attacked the Alemanni, who inhabited both sides of the Rhine. He defeated the latter in a bloody battle, and subjugated the territory between the Moselle and the Lahn. In the heat of the fight, Chlodowig had vowed that if the battle, then wavering in the balance, was determined in his favor, he would accept the faith of his Christian wife, Chlotilda of Burgundy. So in the same year, he, with three thousand nobles of his train, were baptized in the cathedral at Rheims. But his savage heart was not made gentler by his baptism. He conquered the discordant Burgundians, overcame the West Goths, extended the kingdom of the Franks as far as the Rhone and the Garonne, and then sought, by the murder of all the Frankish chiefs, to secure for himself and his descendants the government of the entire kingdom. His zeal for the extension of the Catholic doctrine among the Arian Germans, was so great, that he was praised by the clergy as the "most Christian" king, and a second Constantine. Chlodowig and his successors are known in history as the Merovings or Merwings, a name derived from the ancient chieftain Merovæus.

§ 184. The vices of the father descended to his four sons, who divided up the





DEATH OF BRUNEHILD. (F. Keller.)

(pp. 259.)



511. kingdom after his death, so that the oldest received Austrasia with its capital, Metz; and the three younger, Neustria and Burgundy. Under Chlotar I. and Chlotar II. the whole kingdom was united. But the story of the Merovings makes a

558-613. horrible picture of human wickedness. Fratricide and murder, bloody



MURDER OF THE MEROVINGS BY CLOVIS. (*Vierge.*)

civil wars, and outbreaks of unbridled passions fill up their annals. Bishop Gregory, of Tours, has written the story in the simple style of the books of Judges and of Kings. The wicked deeds of the two queens, Brunhilde and Fredegonde, are especially infamous. At last the descendants of Chlodowig became so impotent that they are known in history as the helpless kings. The steward of the royal estate (Major

Domus) gradually acquired authority and power. The only transaction of the feeble Merovings was their annual visit to the assemblies of the people, where they appeared upon a wagon drawn by four oxen. At first, each of the three kingdoms had its own

657.

Major Domus, but Pippin of Heristal was able to unite the dignities of Neustria, Burgundy, and Austrasia into one great office, and to make it hereditary in his own house. Pippin's descendants, known as "Dukes of the Franks," thus acquired the royal power, while the Merovings retained only the royal name. The Franks devoted themselves entirely to war. As a consequence, Roman culture soon predominated, even in Frankish Gaul; the language, the customs, and the legal institutions of the Romans, continued to exist, and the blonde-haired kings of the Franks occupied the place of the Roman emperor.

## 7. THE ANGLO SAXONS.

§ 185. Britain was abandoned by the Roman armies about the middle of the fifth century. The inhabitants, too weak to resist the attacks of the savage Picts and Scots, sought help from the Angles and the Saxons on the lower Elbe. These bold free-booters, well-known for their courage and their swift moving boats, followed the

449.

call, and crossed the British Islands, under their two leaders Hengist and Horsa. But no sooner had they driven the Picts and Scots back to Caledonia, than they turned upon the natives, and conquered, after a terrible war, the land to which they gave their own name Angle-land, or England. Heathen barbarism, and German customs drove out the Christian Roman culture, language, and law. The old Roman cities disappeared, and Britain returned to primitive conditions, in which the war and the chase, agriculture and pastoral life alone remained. The Britains were mostly killed by the sword. A few escaped to the opposite coast of Gaul, which is now called Brittany. Only in the mountains of Wales and Cornwall, did the Celtic inhabitants retain their independence and their national peculiarities. The rest of England came into the possession of the Anglo Saxons, who established in it seven small kingdoms. These remained separated from each other until the ninth century,

827.

when Egbert, of Wessex, united the seven kingdoms of the Heptarchy, and called himself King of England. Heathenism yielded to Christianity in the seventh century, when the Benedictine monk, Augustine, with his missionaries,

596.

arrived in Kent. The King and his nobles were baptized, and the arch-bishopric of Canturbury established. The legends of King Arthur and his round-table belong to this period of struggle, between the Christian Britains and the heathen Anglo-Saxons.

## 8. THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND THE LOMBARDS.

§ 186. The Court of Constantinople blazed in oriental splendor, and abounded in women and favorites, who made and unmade emperors by their intrigues and their crimes. An insolent body-guard like the Prætorians, and an excitable population, made the government very difficult. The people found pleasure only in religious disputes, and in the rough diversions of the Hippodrome. They were divided into the "Blues" and the "Greens," names taken from the colors of the charioteers of the Hippodrome. These parties hated each other mortally, yet exer-

cised upon the empire and the government, upon the faith and the church, a powerful influence. Such were the circumstances when Justinian, a man of humble origin, ascended the throne. He put down the "Greens," who had stirred up a rebellion against him, and who were especially hated by the Empress Theodora (the daughter of a doorkeeper in the circus), for a personal insult she had received at their hands. Belisarius, his general, was active in their suppression, and the Hippodrome was closed indefinitely. The Justinian code, or



BYZANTINE MEDAL.

*corpus juris*, of which the Pandects are the essential parts, was compiled by his minister Tribonian. He obtained also, through guile, silk-worms from China, and introduced the culture of silk into Europe. He built the church of St. Sophia, in Constantinople, fortified the empire by castles along the Danube, and persecuted Pagans and Arians. His favorite

maxim was "One will, one law, and one faith."

§ 187. Vandals and Goths were Arians, and, as both these kingdoms were in a shattered state, Justinian determined to make war upon them, and by conquering their lands, to restore his empire to the extent that it had possessed in the time of Constantine. Belisarius, the greatest general of his time, subdued the Vandals in a

few months, for these were divided by religious quarrels, and their last king, Gelimer, was taken prisoner to Constantinople. The land was handed over to an East Roman governor. The

Arian faith was rooted out, the young Vandals were drafted into the imperial army, and the stolen treasures carried away to Constantinople. About this same time, Amalasunta, the noble daughter of Theodoric, was murdered by the Gothic prince, Theodatus, whom she had called to a share in the

government. Justinian determined to revenge her, and sent Belisarius to Italy. He conquered Rome, and defended it, with military skill and heroic courage, a whole year against Vitiges, whom the Goths had made king in place of Theodatus. Astonished at the bravery of Belisarius, the Goths offered him the

throne, and surrendered to him their capital, Ravenna. He took it in the name of the Emperor, but did not escape the envy and the slander of the court

favorites. He was recalled in the midst of his victories, and sent to the East to fight the Persians. The Goths thereupon rebelled, lifted the brave Totila

upon his shield, and greeted him as King. Totila soon re-conquered all Italy. Belisarius was then sent back, but so poorly provided with troops and money,

that he could accomplish little. He crept along the coast without



BYZANTINIAN WARRIOR AND MAJOR DOMUS.





SORTIE OF BELISARIUS FROM ROME. (*Il. Voyg.*) (pp. 263.)

venturing a decisive battle. Justinian recalled him in anger and drove him into disgrace. A later legend tells how, as a blind old man, he begged a miserable subsistence.

552. His successor was Narses, a supple courtier, but at the same time, a

552. hero like Belisarius. At Tagina, Totila received a mortal wound, and the bravest of his warriors were left on the battle-field. The remnant of the army

553. now chose Tejas for their king, but after many bloody battles, he too fell at the head of his braves, and only a small company escaped across the Alps.

§ 188. Narses, as imperial governor of Ravenna, now ruled the conquered land. But after Justinian's death, Narses was removed, not, however, before he had called the Lombards into Italy. They came with satisfaction; for they loved to wander, and they were acquainted with the charms of Italy. They marched under the

568. leadership of Alboin, to the regions of the Po, which received from them the present name of Lombardy. They besieged and captured Pavia, and made it the capital of their kingdom. Alboin fell a victim to the vengeance of his wife, the beautiful Rosamunde. He had slain her father, Kuni-

573. mund, king of the Gepidæ, and made a drinking cup of his skull; and at a riotous feast he compelled the daughter to drink from it. Rosamunde was so embittered by this outrage, that she caused his death. The rough Lombards treated the natives with violence, and robbed them of their possessions. But the fertile fields soon showed the signs of German skill and energy. The Roman organization of cities, which had fallen into decay, was renewed by the German Lombards. A powerful nobility of dukes and counts stood at the head of the war-like nation, and the kings were chosen in the assemblies of the people, or, as they were called, in the "fields of May." The Lombards shared with the old Roman population their culture, especially as the Romans accepted from their conquerors the Arian faith. This Lombard kingdom lasted for two centuries, but finally fell to the Franks.

§ 189. The glory of Justinian's empire soon disappeared. The throne of Constantinople was stained with blood and crime. Emperor succeeded emperor. Blinded eyes, mutilated ears and noses belonged to the daily events of this God-forsaken court. And yet Constantinople remained the seat of culture and learning, notwithstanding this

*Leo the* vileness and moral wretchedness. Church affairs still continued to excite  
*Isaurian.* great interest in the imperial city. Statues and relics in the churches threatened to produce a new idolatry, and Leo, the Isaurian, issued an edict, requiring all

718-741. statues and pictures to be taken from the churches. This created a storm, which shook the empire for a century. Two parties, image-worshippers and image-



BYZANTINIAN EMPEROR AND PAGE.

**Constantine** breakers, made war upon each other. Leo's energetic son, Constantine, nick-named by his enemies, Copronymus (the dung-heap), followed his father's example. He convened a council, which condemned the worship of images as an "invention of the devil," and punished the incorrigible with death and exile. Leo, the Fourth, belonged also to these image-breaking emperors. But after his sudden death, his widow, Irene, called another church council, which repealed the former action, and restored the images to the churches. But this ambitious and passionate woman put out the eyes of her own son, and then drove him into poverty. She carried on the government for five years with energy and audacity. It is said that Karl the Great, was arranging a marriage with her, in order to unite the East and the West, when she was driven from the throne by a conspiracy. She died at Lesbos, in poverty and wretchedness. Leo, the Armenian, and his descendants made another attempt to remove the images from the churches. This, however, was not so violent, and was brought to an end by the empress. Basilus, the Macedonian, began a new dynasty, that ruled for two centuries, and brought new strength to the empire. The decrees against images were not recognized in the West, yet a church council, convened by Karl the Great, at Frankfort, condemned the abuse of images in the church.

## 9. THE SLAVS.

§ 189. *b.* The Slavs were called Wends by the Germans. They are one of the great families of Europe; the Germans, Romans, and Celts being the other three. They lived for centuries on the wooded heights of the Carpathian mountains, whence they were driven by Asiatic hordes into other lands, to seek new homes. Some migrated northward, and settled in the plains and steppes, where the Scythians and Sarmatians had for ages pastured their flocks and herds. Others moved to the South and West, and occupied the lands vacated in the great migrations of the fifth century. Russians and Poles, the Wends of Moravia and Bohemia (Czechs), and those of Silesia, are of Slavonic origin. The Slavs in modern Germany are for the most part merged with the Teutons, whose ancestors settled in Pomerania and Prussia.

Other tribes occupied the lands between the Danube and the Adriatic Sea, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Croatia; and Macedonia, Greece, and the Peloponnesus were invaded by them. In language, customs, and origin they were closely related, but divided into countless separate groups. Their religion was a worship of idols, connected with human sacrifices. It was based upon the reverence for beneficent, and their dread of the maleficent powers of nature. Swantowit was the chief God of the West Slavs.



BYZANTINIAN EMPRESS AND PRINCESS.



His temple was at Arkona, on the island of Rügen, in the Baltic. Thither went all the Wends of the Oder and the Elbe, to worship his four-headed image. Perun, the god of thunder and lightning, was the supreme god of the East Slavs. Czernabog, the



MOHAMMED. (*Ideal.*)

wicked head of the black deities and spirits of the under world, was another to whom they sacrificed. The Slavs are lively and excitable, possessing, also, many domestic virtues and amiable social qualities. They soon forget in songs and dances, the cares and burdens of life; but when excited, easily exceed the limits of moderation. In former centuries, they were counted bloodthirsty, vindictive, and faithless. Proud of their nationality, yet they easily adopted foreign manners and characteristics. The passion for culture, and for ideal existence, they did not share with the Roman and the German races. The Roman lands occupied by the Slavs were turned into waste places, while those conquered by the Germans blossomed into beauty and fertility. Oppressed by the Germans and treated as slaves, they have returned hatred for contempt. Devoted to pastoral and agricultural life, they are notable in war, chiefly for their cavalry. In their morals they incline to the Orient, and woman is by no means regarded as she is among the Germans of the West.

### III. MOHAMMED AND THE ARABS.

§ 190.



**ARABIA FELIX** (Happy Arabia), is the southwest district of Arabia. It is fruitful in coffee, frankincense and costly spices. Here used to live a people capable of great culture, and powerful in their haughty independence. They worshipped nature and the stars; a black stone in the Kaaba at Mecca was their national holy of holies. The Koreishites were the guardians of the Kaaba, and to it came throngs of pilgrims every year, who made it famous for its fairs and festivals and poetical contests. The Arabs had grown rich through commerce and caravans and the breeding of horses. They delighted in poems and legends. It was among these Arabs that Mohammed was born in the year 571. He came of an honored priestly family among the Koreishites. He grew up a merchant, and made many journeys in the caravan trade. In his

*Mohammed*

571-632.

travels and at Mecca, the meeting-place of the Semitic races, he found opportunity to observe the morals and the inner life of men. He thus became convinced that the religion of the Christians and Jews was greatly superior to that of the Arabs. His marriage with the rich widow, Kadijah, made him independent; he withdrew from the

bustle of life, and began to ponder how he could redeem his people from their low estate. The waiting of the Jews for a Messiah, the promise of Jesus to send a comforter, so wrought upon his mind, that he came to feel and to proclaim, "I am he of whom the world has need." His epileptic seizures favored his belief, that he had intercourse with angels, and visions from on high.

§ 191. Mohammed was just forty years old when he began to cry: "There is but one God, and Mohammed is his Prophet." But except his wife Ayesha, his father-in-law Abu Bekr, his uncle Ali, and a few other relatives and friends, he found none to believe in his mission. A threatened outbreak compelled him, indeed, to flee from Mecca to Medina (Hidschrah,

July 16, 622. Hégira. The first year of the Mohammedan Calendar). At Medina he found adherents, with whom he made excursions, and through whom he finally conquered from the Koreishites, the liberty of returning to Mecca. His revelations (from the angel Gabriel) were ecstatic utterances, frequently adapted to existing circumstances. These were collected, two years after his death, into the Koran, which is divided into Suras. This is the law and the gospel of the Moslems. Mecca recognized Mohammed as a prophet, and his doctrine, *Islam*, soon spread over all Arabia. In it he combined fundamental doctrines of Judaism and



THE KAABA AND MOSQUE AT MECCA.

Christianity, with many maxims sanctified by long usage, and peculiarly grateful to the Oriental mind.

Ablutions, prayers, fasts, pilgrimages to Mecca, and the giving of alms, he urgently inculcated. He retained the rite of circumcision, prohibited strong drink and pork, and permitted polygamy. A chief commandment was to propagate Islam, and to compel its acceptance, if need be, by fire and sword. Human life and human fate are determined from eternity; death and misfortune reach no one, save by the pre-existing will of God. "To battle!" therefore cried the prophet's disciples "Paradise is full of pleasure for us; there, waited on by black-eyed virgins, we shall

632. gaze upon the face of God." In the eleventh of the Hegira, Mohammed died. Mecca, where he was born, and Medina, where he is buried, remain to this hour the sacred resorts of thronging pilgrims. The Prophet united seriousness and dignity in conduct and bearing, with a cheerful and engaging nature, and a handsome person. He was gentle, simple and domestic in his habits, but rather too susceptible to the love of women.

§ 192. Ali, husband of Mohammed's only daughter Fatime, hoped to be his successor (Caliph). But while he was weeping over the Prophet's corpse, Abu



COIN OF RHODES.



Abu Bekr,

632-634

Bekr, the father of Mohammed's artful wife, managed to make himself the

Caliph. The simple, energetic Omar followed him. The enthusiastic Arabs carried their new doctrine beyond the bounds of Arabia, Moslems (Musselmen, Saracens) conquered Palestine and Syria, entering as victors

634-644. Jerusalem, Antioch and Damascus. Khalid "The Sword of God," and the cunning Amru, led the hosts. Persia yielded after a series of bloody battles. The last king Jezdegerd fled, like Darius before Alexander, with the holy fire into the mountains. There he fell by the hand of an assassin. Eastward now the Arabs

650. marched, carrying ISLAM into India. The worship of the Sun died out before it, and it became the prevailing religion of the East. The new cities Basra, Cufa, and Bagdad became the centres of commerce, and the seats of luxury and splendor. Amru marched from Syria to Egypt, conquered Alexandria (destroying the great library), and reduced Memphis to ashes. Cairo arose from the camp of the Moslem general, and the gospels were pushed aside by the Koran.

§ 193. Omar was stabbed by a Persian slave. Othman, the collector and arranger of the Koran, obtained the caliphate. Twelve years later, he became the victim of a conspiracy, and Ali at last ascended the chair that belonged to him.

But the family of the murdered Othman, the Ommiads, opposed him, provoking a civil

661. war, in which Ali perished and all his house. The Ommiads obtained the caliphate, and transferred the seat of power to Damascus. They conquered Cyprus, Rhodes, and Asia Minor, and besieged Constantinople. Greek fire saved the



SIGNATURE OF MOHAMMED.



COIN OF CYPRUS.







ENTRY OF OMAR THE GREAT INTO JERUSALEM. (*O. F. Reutscher.*)

008-075. imperial city. This was prepared in the holds of ships, and forced in streams through copper pipes, upon the hostile vessels.

§ 194. The north coast of Africa was conquered at the same time, but only after a long war, in which Christian culture and Christian religion were annihilated. Kairawan in the territory of Tunis, a spot surrounded by smiling meadows, became the flourishing capital of the Saracen kingdom, and the centre of the caravan trade. North Africa, once the seat of Roman civilization, now disappeared from the circle of cultivated nations. Bedouin tribes founded their robber commonwealths upon the ruins of the ancient splendor. Sicily, likewise fell into the hands of the Arabs, and became the centre of piratical excursions to the coasts of Italy.

§ 195. In the beginning of the eight century, the West Goth Roderigo, robbed king Wiridza of the Spanish throne. The sons of the banished king, and other discontented Spaniards thereupon called the Moslems into Africa. Tarik, the Arab general, crossed the



CHARLES MARTEL.



CHARLES MARTEL IN THE BATTLE OF POITIERS. (*Plüddemann.*)

straits, laid the foundations of Gibraltar (Gebel al Tarik), and conquered the West  
711. Goths. In the battle of Xerxes, the flower of the West Gothic soldiers



covered the battle-field, and King Roderigo was drowned in his flight. The Arabs (Moors) conquered all Spain as far as Asturias, into the hills of which the West Goths withdrew. The Saracens crossed the Pyrenees, conquered South France as far as the

Rhone, and threatened the kingdom and Christianity with destruction. But Charles Martel (The Hammer), the natural son of the Major Domus, Pippin of Heristal, over-

732.

came them in a seven days' battle at Tours and Poitiers. The Arabs returned to Spain, and Charles Martel was the savior of Western Christendom.

196. Eighteen years after this victory, the Omniads were driven from the throne by the Abbasides, who destroyed

750.

their rivals by a terrible massacre. Abderrahman, however, escaped the destruction of his family, and after many dangers and adventures reached Spain

755.

where he founded the Caliphate of Cordova. The Abbasides chose the splendid Bagdad for their capital. Harun al Raschid, the contemporary of Karl the Great,

780-800.

ruled this city with such re-



THE CID CAMPEADOR ON HIS HORSE  
"BABIECA."



THE ALHAMBRA OF GRANADA.

nown, that his name has become immortal in the Arabian nights. But the culture, the splendor, and the luxurious life of Bagdad destroyed the war-like energy of the



Saracens, so that the later Caliphs became the playthings of their Turkish body guards. The commander of the guard (Emir al Omra) soon usurped all temporal power, and left to the successors of the prophet only the dignity of a spiritual prince.

§ 197. Spain flourished wonderfully under the Ommiads. Populous cities sprang up; industry and agriculture prospered; mines were opened; rich villages, fertile farms, splendid palaces with their gardens and fountains, like Alcazar in Cordova, and Alhambra in Grenada, proved the prosperity of the land. Arts and sciences were also patronized, but when the Ommiad dynasty disappeared, Spain was split up into many

1083. small states, which were finally overcome by the Christians in the

North. These dwellers in Asturias extended their territory by successful wars, so that finally three kingdoms were established, Castile, Aragon, and Portugal. These were independent of each other, but carried on perpetual war with the Arabs of the South. These struggles produced in the Christian Spaniards fanaticism, pride, and a passion for war. The deeds of the god-inspired champions, especially

1099. of the great Cid Campeador, were handed down in song, and kept alive the courage and the chivalry of the Spanish nobility. But civic freedom also flourished in the Spanish cities.

1212. The victory of Tolosa in the Sierra Morena, broke forever the power of the Moors. A generation later, Cordova and Granada recognized Fer-

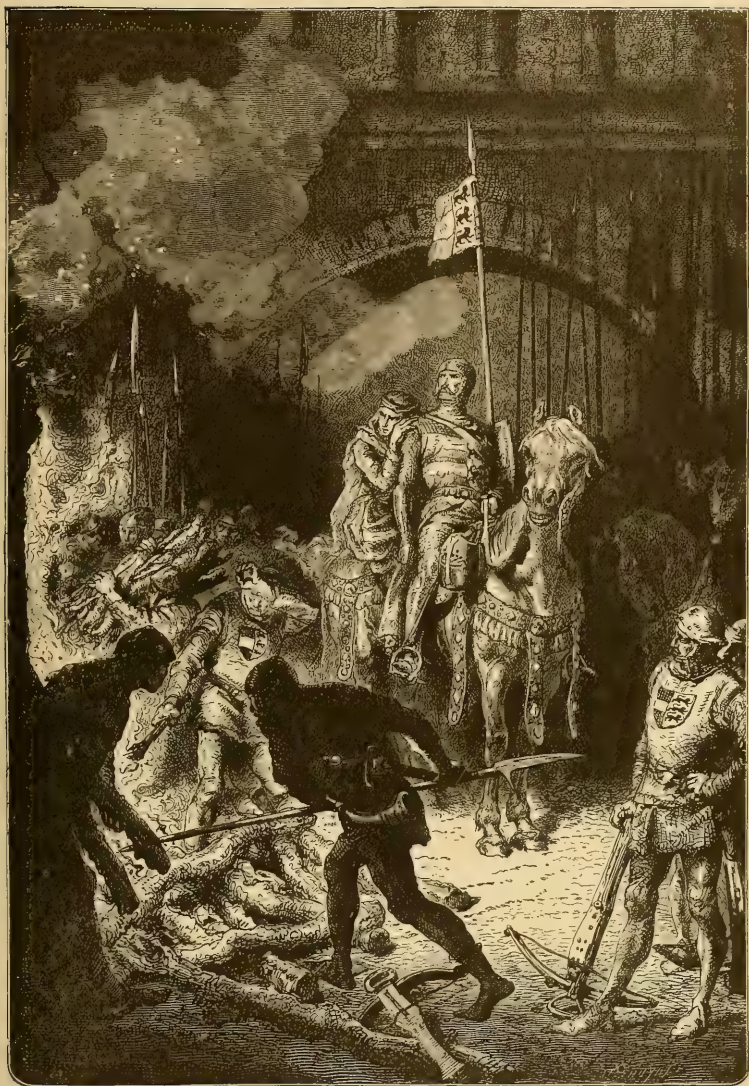
1248. dinand of Castile as their sovereign, and the Moors no longer ruled anywhere in Spain.

§ 198. In all the lands inhabited by the Arabs, arts and sciences flourished. Mosques, palaces, and gardens were found in all their cities. Industry and commerce made them wealthy, but also made them weak. Architecture, decorative sculpture and painting (Arabesques), music, song, and poetry were patronized and richly rewarded. The system of notation, introduced in the eleventh century by the Italian Guido, of

Areenna †1037. Arezzo, was borrowed probably from the Spanish Arabs. High schools were established in Damascus, Bagdad, Cairo, Cordova and Salerno, where grammar and philosophy, natural science and medicine, mathematics and astronomy, were taught. The Arabs erected observatories, and recorded their observations in astronomical tables. They introduced Arabic numerals and were the most famous physicians of the middle ages. They translated the writings of the Greeks, especially those of



ARISTOTLE. (*Palazzo Spada, Rome.*)



THE CID WITH DONNA XIMENA ORDERS THE BURNING OF A CADI. (*A. de Neuville.*)  
(pp. 273.)

Aristotle, whose magnificent system became the foundation and substructure of the investigations and systems of the Mohammedan philosophers, Avicenna and Averroes, *Averroes* †1198. and the Jewish-Arab philosopher, Maimonides. They were exceedingly *Maimonides* †1204. fond of lyric and narrative poetry. The Arabian Antara, Mutinabbi, *Mutanabbi* †965. and others were at one time celebrated names, and the Persian poets *Firdusi* †1030. Firdusi (author of the famous epic *Shahname*), Saadi and Hafiz are *Saadi* †1291. known to all European peoples in translations. Firdusi's epic tells *Hafiz* †1389. the story of the kings and heroes of Iran, and the later Persian history down to the overthrow of the Sassanids. It is in two parts. The first tells the story of the chief hero Rustem, the second is a rhymed chronicle, and treats especially of the deeds of Alexander.



CLOVIS.



CHILDEBERT.



CLOTILDA.





## B. THE MIDDLE AGE.

### I. THE ERA OF THE KARLINGS.

§ 198.

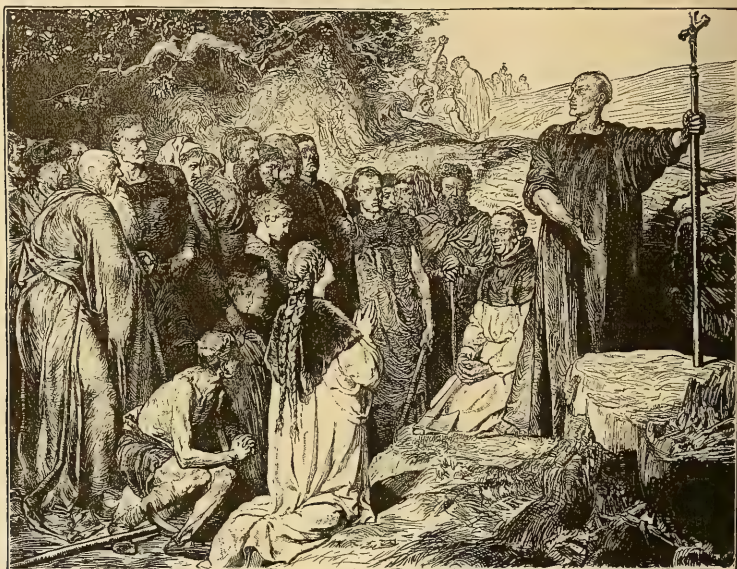
#### 1. PIPIN THE LITTLE (752-768). KARL THE GREAT (768-814).



THE Austrasian dukes, Pipin of Heristal and Karl Martel (§§ 184, 194), had through martial deeds won the confidence of the nation, and through their zeal for the spread of Christianity, the favor of the clergy. People and priests combined to place Pipin upon the Frankish throne. For when Majordomus or Steward of the Palace, Pipin the son of Karl Martel confined the last of the Merovings in a cloister and had himself proclaimed King by a national assembly. The choice of the nation was confirmed by the Pope of Rome, who sought to secure in the King of the Franks, a support against the Lombards in Upper Italy and against the image-breaking Emperors (Iconoclasts) of Constantinople, under whose sovereignty the eternal city stood. In return for his solemn coronation, first at the hands of the Bishops of the Kingdom, and afterwards of Pope Stephen III. who consecrated him King "by the grace of God," in the cathedral of St. Denis, Pipin freed the Roman see from the domination of the Byzantine emperors, and promised the Pope, in a personal interview, to cede to him a part of the Adriatic coast south of Ravenna. This "donation of Pipin" which was afterward drawn up in the "deed of Kiersy" and deposited in the papal archives is the basis of the temporal power of the Pope. Yet the pontificate did not come, until later, into permanent possession of this great addition to the so-called *Patrimonium Petri*, the beginnings of which existed already in the days of Gregory the Great.

To this period belongs Boniface (properly Winfred) one of those active missionaries from England who, under the protection of the Karlings, proclaimed the doctrine

of the Crucified Redeemer to the rude inhabitants of Germany. He preached in Hesse, where he founded the Abbey of Fulda, and among the Thuringians, Franks and Bavarians, establishing everywhere bishoprics and schools, so that for his energy and zeal he was



ST. BONIFACE IN GERMANY. (*Peter Janssen*)

*R. Brendamour X.A.*

called the "Apostle of the Germans." After his appointment as archbishop of Mayence, he went among the heathen Frisians by whom he was put to death. He and his companions were attacked during worship by a hostile mob; he made no resistance and was cut down holding the gospels above his head. The sees and schools established by him were closely connected with the papal chair, and as the Karling rulers favored this connection, the Pope of Rome came to be regarded throughout the whole Frankish empire, at the close of the eighth century, as the **HEAD OF THE CHURCH**. As a consequence, the earlier independent foundations were gradually incorporated into the Roman Catholic church.

§ 199. Pipin "the Little" or "the Short," as he came to be called, ruled for sixteen <sup>768</sup> years; under his energetic administration the kingdom of the Franks extended far into South and Middle Germany, and at his death he divided it between his two sons Karl and Karlmann. When, three years afterward, the latter died the <sup>771</sup> estates of the realm declared Karl sole sovereign of the Franks. The widow and sons of Karlmann fled across the Alps and found protection with Desiderius the Lombard king in Pavia. Desiderius was angry at Karl who was his son-in-law as he had recently driven away his wife.

Karl waged many wars; nevertheless he furthered Christian civilization and civil

KARL THE GREAT. (*Albrecht Dürer.*)

order. In order to protect his frontiers, and at the same time to extend Christianity, he fought the League of the Saxons thirty-one years. This league consisted of several heathen tribes along the Weser and the Elbe. They lived without cities, in free com-





KARL THE GREAT CROSSING THE ALPS. (*Paul Delaroche.*)

munities, under their counts and nobles, and they were fighting for their dearest possessions, liberty and the religion of their forefathers. Karl conquered the Eresburg in the

772. south of the Teutoburger forest, destroyed the Irminsaul, the giant tree which according to the belief of the people supported the universe, and compelled the Saxons to make peace. This accomplished he obeyed the call of Pope Hadrian against

774. Desiderius, the Lombard king, who had invaded the Roman territory, and tried to compel the Pope to consecrate the two sons of Karlmann kings of the Franks.

Karl collected his forces at Geneva, crossed the Alps at St. Bernard, stormed the passes and conquered Pavia. Desiderius was imprisoned in a Frankish cloister; and soon after his son Adalgis was conquered at Verona. Karl had himself crowned king

774. of the Lombards at Milan, united Upper Italy with the kingdom of the Franks and confirmed to the Pope the "donation of Pipin."



BATTLE IN THE VALLEY OF RONCESVALLES. (*H. Vogel.*)

200. During Karl's absence the Saxons had driven away the Frankish garrisons

774-777. and restored the old frontiers. Once more the king appeared in their land. His following proved too strong for the Saxon tribes, who entered the field in separate bands. Karl conquered them anew, fortified the Weser with castles and, in Paderborn, compelled the chiefs of the Saxons to surrender. One only refused to sign the treaty of submission, Duke Witukind who took refuge with the Danes.

The two following years Karl fought against the Moors in Spain; conquered Pam-  
777. peluna and Saragossa and annexed all the country as far as the Ebro, including Barcelona, to the Frankish kingdom. But returning from Spain, the rear-

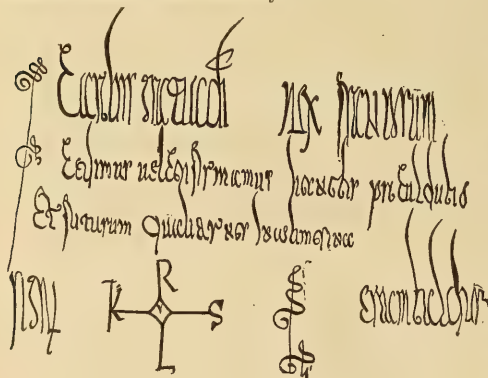
guard of Karl's army, under Roland, suffered a terrible defeat in the valley of Roncevalles, in which the bravest heroes of the Franks were slain. This fight of Roland was a favorite theme of medieval poets. (Roland's song, § 249).

The absence of the king in Spain encouraged the Saxons to rebel again. They devastated Thuringia and Hesse with fire and sword, compelled the monks of Fulda to fly and swept like a flood to the Rhine. Karl hurried promptly to the rescue and overthrew them again. He then introduced the Frankish system of districts and judiciary and placed only Franks or friendly Saxon nobles in authority. But when he attempted to use the Saxons against the Slavs in the East, they fell upon their comrades, the Franks, at Suintal (between Hanover and Hameln) and cut them to pieces. This demanded revenge. The Frankish officers devastated the homes of the Saxons and

slaughtered 4500 Saxon prisoners to atone for the massacre. The war became only more savage. But it was finally determined against the Saxons at the battle

of the Haase. Dukes Witukind and Albion took the oath of fealty and were baptized. The people followed their example. A number of new bishoprics were established around Cologne and Mayence, for the maintainance and spread of Christianity among the Saxons. But a few years after, a long dreaded free military service, and the demand of the church for a tenth of the harvest, provoked another rebellion, which led to the expulsion of 10,000 Saxon families and the planting of Frankish settlements in their land. This broke their resistance forever. The Mark Brandenburg was created by Karl the Great as a means of defence and a base of operations against the Slavs east of the river Elbe.

§ 201. Thassillo, Duke of Bavaria, and his Lombard wife also attempted to conquer independence, but were defeated, captured, and shut up by Karl in a cloister. The savage Avars of Pannonia also provoked him; he drove them back and took from them the best of their territory.



MANUSCRIPT AND SIGNATURE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

Karl the Great was now master of all lands from the Ebro in Spain and the Apennines in Italy to the Eider in North Germany, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Elbe and the Raab. To him, at Paderborn, came the exiled Pope Leo III, seeking protection and help. Karl betook himself to Rome at once and restored Leo to the papal throne. In a solemn trial, over which the King presided, the Pope was acquitted of the charges made against him, in the church of St. Peter Karl was crowned by the Pope EM-

**December 800.** PEROR OF ROME. This made Western Christianity into a politico-ecclesiastical unity, "a divine empire on the earth," of which the Pope was the spiritual and the emperor, the temporal head; "THE TWO SWORDS" were to stand together





CORONATION OF KARL THE GREAT IN ST. PETER'S—ROME. (F. A. Kaulbach.)

mutually recognizing and supporting each other, yet independent and self-subsistent. This led to the complete separation of the Western and Eastern churches, (the Roman Catholic and the Greek Catholic).

§ 202. The internal administration of Karl was no less successful than his military. He improved every branch of government. He set aside the dukes of the tribes, divided the whole kingdom into counties, appointing a count for each, and royal inspectors to hear the appeals of those dissatisfied with the decisions of the counts.\* He appointed stewards to manage the crown lands, and to collect their revenues. Laws and ordinances, called *capitularies*, were determined upon by the Emperor, with the advice of the Bishops and the nobility, and confirmed in assemblies of the people, in which all freemen had a voice. He favored agriculture and the education of the people, had copies made of the works of Latin writers, and began a collection of old German heroic ballads. Scholars like the monk Alcuin and the chronicler Eginhard rejoiced in his favor and support. To the clergy he decreed a tenth of all revenues, and gave them besides many presents; he introduced the Roman church music, and sent missionaries to the heathen that the gospel might be preached, and churches and monasteries created. Aachen (Aix la Chapelle) was his favorite residence, next to this, Ingelheim on the Rhine. Frankfort on the Main was built originally about a

castle of the Frankish king. He died in 814, and his body lies in the church of the Virgin Mary at Aachen, a church in Old-Roman style, built for him by Eginhard. His renown was so great among his contemporaries, that even Haroun al Raschid (§ 195) sent him costly presents from the distant East. His handsome, majestic form, and his powerful frame still moves in legend and in song a monumental imperial figure of Mediæval Christendom, the first great example of the organizing genius of the Teutonic races.

## 2. DISSOLUTION OF THE FRANKISH EMPIRE.

§ 203. Karl's son, Ludwig the Pious, belonged rather to the cloister, than the court or the army. A premature division of his states among his three sons Lothar, Pipin and Ludwig brought much sorrow to himself and great confusion to the nation. For when he sought to change it in favor of a fourth son, the two elder sons rebelled against him. Ludwig abandoned by his vassals on the "Field of Lies," at Strasburg, and betrayed by his sons, was imprisoned by Lothar in a cloister. He was reinstated by his son Ludwig, but after Pipin's death this same son took arms against him to redress another unjust division. Dying broken hearted, he

left his sons to quarrel with each other. The civil war that followed so wasted the kingdom, that the bishops and nobles compelled the brothers to sign the

treaty of Verdun. By this compact Lothar obtained Italy, Burgundy, and Lorraine (Lothar-ingen) with the imperial title; Karl the Bald received West Frankia (France); and Ludwig the German, the lands on the right bank of the Rhine, with Spire, Worms, and Mayence.

The tribes in the East now began to form a nation and were called "Deutsche" to distinguish them from the Latin races of the West and the South. The treaty of Verdun marks the birth hour of the German and the French nation. The unity of the

\* "If a count fails to do justice, let the inspectors take possession of his house and live at his expense until he does." So runs a law of Karl the Great, 779.





# ARMS AND ARMOR OF THE MIDDLE AGE.

- |                             |                               |   |   |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|---|---|
| 1. Neck Helmet.             | 14. Helmet.                   | 25, 26, 27. Battle Lances.                      | 37. Costume of Knights of 13th century. |
| 2. Shoulder and Arm Shield. | 15. Neck Armor.               | 28. Tournament Armor.                           | 38. Dagger.                             |
| 3. Knee Armor.              | 16, 17. Helmets.              | 29. Blunt Practice Lance.                       | 39. Stylett.                            |
| 4. Herald's Trumpet.        | 18, 19. Sobres.               | 30. Light Service Lance.                        | 40. Martel de Fer.                      |
| 5. Kettle Drum.             | 20. Shield of 13th Century.   | 31. Blunt Practice "                            | 41. Francisques.                        |
| 6. Long Bow.                | 21. " " 12th "                | 32. Light Service "                             | 42. Lochaber Axe.                       |
| 7. Cross "                  | 22. " " 11th "                | 33. Double-handed Kris Sword                    | 43. Stylett.                            |
| 8. Arbalest.                | 23. Helmet of 12th "          | 34, 35. Ecu, or Shield 11th and 12th Centuries. | 44. Dagger.                             |
| 9, 10, 11. Arrows.          | 24. Double-handed Long Sword. | 36. Braconnière.                                | 45. Crow's Foot.                        |
| 12. Herald's Trumpet.       |                               |   |   |
| 13. Signal Horn.            |                               |   |   |



Frankish empire was dissolved; in future, the peoples of Germanic and Romanic speech would move to their development along widely separated paths.

§ 204. A time of great confusion followed the treaty of Verdun. Arabs in the South, Slavs in the East, Normans in the North and West made havoc in Europe. The Karling rulers, too weak to save their dominions, were forced to concede to the counts of the different marks hereditary authority. Thus it happened that all power came into the hands of the nobility.

Karl the Fat, who came unexpectedly into possession of the imperial crown, and  
 876-887. the entire inheritance of Karl the Great, was too weak to resist the daring Normans and therefore made with them a disgraceful peace.

His nephew Arnulf, of Bavaria, rebelled against him and the embittered German nobles flocked to Arnulf's standard. After the death of the emperor, France and Italy fell into anarchy, but Arnulf ruled Germany with a strong hand. He defeated

891. the Normans, and with the help of the Magyars destroyed the mighty kingdom of Moravia. These Magyars or Hungarians took possession of the lowlands



FRANKISH KING AND QUEEN. (10th Century.)



KING KARL THE BALD.

of the Danube, and became for Germany a more terrible scourge than either Avar or Slav had ever been. Arnulf died in the prime of his manhood, after a glorious expedition into Italy, leaving an infant son Ludwig to occupy his throne. The Magyars now invaded the land and forced the payment of a yearly tribute.

This continued until the Dukes of Bavaria, Swabia, Saxony and other German Princes elected Conrad of Franconia as their King. For the Karling line had died out  
 900-911. with Ludwig the child. Germany was now an elective monarchy, yet the ruling line was seldom departed from, until it failed of an heir.

§ 205. The Karlings ruled in France longer than elsewhere, but without energy and

898-929. without influence. Under

Charles the Simple the dukes and counts made themselves quite independent of the crown, and the mightiest of them Hugh of Paris, imprisoned the feeble king for a long time. On the other hand, Charles freed his

Kingdom from the piracies of the Normans, by giving to Rollo the province now called Normandy, on condition that he and his followers would be baptized and recognize the King of France as their liege lord. The Normans soon adopted the language, the manners, and the life of the French. They restored the ruined cities and increased the culture and prosperity of the land by agriculture, laws, and an established justice. Charles the Simple was followed by two more Karling Kings, Louis D'Outre-Mer and his son

**936-954.** Lothar. But their power was at last so limited that they possessed only the city of Laon and vicinity; all the rest was in the hands of the defiant nobles.

**954-986.** Louis V. son of Lothar died childless, whereupon Hugh Capet son and heir of

**986-987.** Count Hugh of Paris assumed the royal title, and when Charles of Lorraine asserted his claim as rightful heir, he was conquered and confined for life in a dungeon.

## II. NORMANS AND DANES.

§ 206.

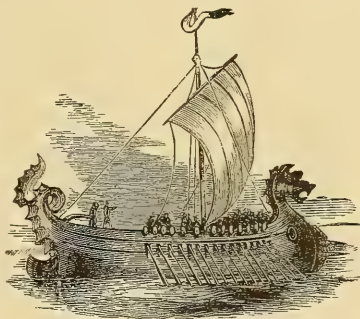


THE Scandinavians are a Teutonic people. They share with the Germans the love of freedom and of activity, the migratory impulse, and have the same language, religion, and customs. Their Viking expeditions carried them in all directions, and they confided life and property boldly to their boats on the stormy sea. As Normans they ravaged the coast of the Baltic and the North Seas, sailed with their little ships into the mouths of rivers, and returned to

their homes laden with spoils. As Danes, they terrified the English and forced from them a heavy tribute. The Norwegians discovered and peopled the distant Iceland, and founded on the island a flourishing community, with the religion and language, and the laws and institutions of the mother country. Certain Norman Vaeriger were

**862.** called to the dominion of the lands on the Gulfs of Finland and Bothnia, by the Slavic inhabitants. Ruric, prince of the Russians, established himself in Novgorod, and became the father of a race that ruled Russia, till the end of the sixteenth century; although his posterity adopted the manners and the language of the natives. Greenland was discovered and colonized by the Icelanders, and even America

is said to have been known to the Normans. These Normans loved the chase, war, and feats of arms. Agriculture, and the raising of cattle, they turned over to their slaves. Fidelity was their chief virtue, and the love of poetry the only tenderness of these rude men. Their singers (Skalds) celebrated, in epics and other poems, the mighty deeds of their forefathers. The Edda (Wisdom) is the most famous collection



NORMAN SHIP.

of these heroic songs, and exists in two forms. Ansgar, Bishop of Hamburg, preached Christianity with great zeal among the Scandinavians, as early as the ninth century. But the worship of Odin did not yield to the new faith for more than two centuries.

§ 207. England, under the weak successors of Egbert, suffered especially from the Danes. They plundered the sea-coasts and the river shores, and destroyed the Chris-  
*Alfred the Great.* tian churches and cloisters. Even Alfred the Great was driven by

*871-901.* them from his throne, although after long wandering he succeeded, by cunning, bravery, and vigilance, in putting a stop to their incursions. Several companies of Danes, who had been converted to Christianity, settled in Northumberland. And Alfred devoted his strength to the cultivation of his people. Like Karl the Great, he divided the country into communities and districts, and appointed counts and aldermen to be administrators of justice. He founded churches and schools; he collected the Anglo-Saxon heroic poems, and translated the writing of Boethius. In all important matters he counseled with the Witenagemot, an assembly of nobles. Himself a model of upright life, Alfred accustomed his people to intelligent and regular activity. But under his successors the Danes of Northumber-

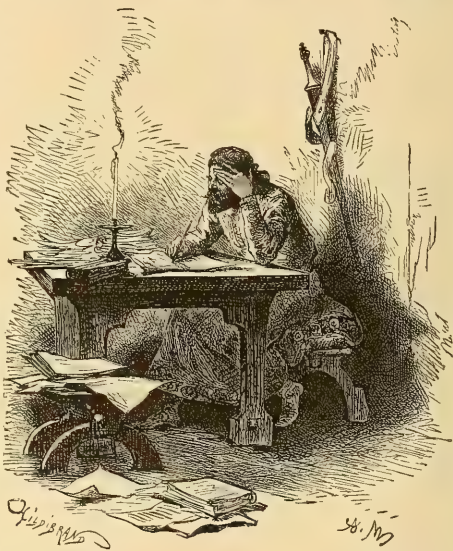
*1002.* land were massacred by the Anglo-Saxon population. Thereupon Sweyn "The Lucky," king of Denmark and Norway, renewed the expeditions of plunder with such success, that his son, Canute the Great, united the Eng-

*Canute,* lish crown with the  
*1016-1035.* Danish and Nor-

wegian. He was a wise and just ruler. He made a commercial treaty with the German emperor, Conrad II, and proved his reverence for the holy father in Rome by a pilgrimage. After the death of Canute and of his sons, Edward the Confessor, a scion of the old

*Edward the* royal family, ascended the throne. Edward had spent much  
*Confessor,* time with his relatives in Normandy, and acquired a love for  
*1042-1066.* Norman habits. He favored therefore the foreigner at the expense of the natives, and at his death appointed Duke William of Normandy to be his successor. The nation rebelled and chose Harold king. But at the battle of

*1066.* Hastings (or Senlac), in which Harold and the flower of the Anglo-Saxon nobility lost their lives, William the Conqueror became Lord of England. The Norman Duke having been accepted by the people, introduced many new conditions. He enriched his Norman knights with the estates of the conquered Anglo-



ALFRED THE GREAT IN HIS STUDY. (A. de Neuville.)





LEIF ERIC DISCOVERS VINLAND. (A. D. 1000.)

Saxons, gave the principal church offices to his friends, made the French language the language of the realm, and established Norman law. A single battle thus sufficed to change the character of England. The living and powerful English nationality of to-day is a blending of different people, different laws, different manners and customs, different poetry, and different language.

§ 208. Robert Guiscard (the Cunning) was a Norman nobleman of handsome form and enterprising mind. He conquered, by his bravery and shrewd-

*Robert Guiscard* 1056-1085. ness, the largest part of Lower Italy. He called himself King of Apulia and Calabria; recognized the Pope as his liege-lord, and saved Gregory VII from the revenge of Henry IV. His brief career powerfully influenced the history of the Papacy, and the subsequent history of Western Europe. Boemund, his heroic son, extended his dominions by new conquests, while Robert's brother, Roger, took Sicily, with its two cities, Palermo and Messina, from the Arabs. The stories of the blessed coasts of Salerno, of the eternal spring of the South, with its sweet fruits and its treasures, attracted many energetic Normans to the charming region. Robert's house

*Roger II.* died out. His nephew Roger 1130-1154. II. united Sicily with Lower Italy, received the kingly dignity from the Pope, and founded the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, into which he introduced the feudal system, and the judicial practice of France. This kingdom became exceedingly prosperous; it had a good constitution, justice was carefully administered, there were fine schools at Salerno and Amalfi, agriculture, commerce, and industry were fostered. Nevertheless the courage, the energy, and the customs of the Normans were gradually undermined. These beautiful lands remained for fifty-six years in the hands of Roger, and his successors, and then passed to the Hohenstaufens.



NORMAN LADIES AND NOBLEMAN.  
(11th Century.)

### III. THE ASCENDENCY OF THE GERMAN ROMAN EMPIRE.

#### 1. THE SAXON DYNASTY. (919-1024.)

§ 209



GERMANY had become, through the violence of its nobles and the invasions of the Hungarians, a land of chaos and of barbarism. Conrad the Salic king, the first freely chosen monarch, tried earnestly and with great severity, to bring about a better state of things. The disobedient Counts, Erchanger and Berchthold, who had changed their countship into dukedoms, and tried to escape from Conrad's royal authority, were swiftly beheaded. Their mortal enemy Salomo,



EDITH FINDING THE BODY OF HAROLD AFTER THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS. (*A. de Newville.*)  
19 (pp. 289.)



the rich and sagacious bishop of Constance, wrought their ruin at the meeting of the diet. Conrad I. was a manly prince of imposing stature, generous and cheerful. But in his terrible wrestle with the opposing forces of his time, his noble nature was undermined, and his strength prematurely broken. When he perceived that his children were neither intelligent nor successful, and that his land was in danger from the powerful *Henry the Fowler*, erfül Duke of Saxony, with whom he had carried on war for many years, he urged the elevation of his former antagonist, Henry the Fowler, of Saxony, to the throne. This energetic prince increased his kingdom



STATUE OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR AT FALAIS,  
FRANCE. (A. de Neville.)

**Otto I.** to maintain the unity of the kingdom, and to appease all tribal hatred.  
**936-973.** He gave dukedoms and bishoprics to relatives and friends with this end in view. But only after desperate fights with his two brothers, did he come into peaceful possession of his throne. His one brother, Tankmar, was slain at the altar of the church, where he sought protection. Otto was a man of majestic stature; his gaze betokened power and authority, and he would brook no resistance. And yet he met the humble and the oppressed with generosity and justice. He watched vigilantly to see that every one received his rights, and that the judges

toward the North and the West and the East. In the North he established Schleswig, in the West he reconquered Lorraine, and in the East he founded the Markneissen, to keep off the Slavs. At the same time he did his utmost to Germanize the Wends in the Eastern lands, and to win them for Christianity and civilization. The Magyars, who every year broke over the land trampling down the corn-fields, with the hoofs of their horses, were induced to sell him a nine years' truce. This Henry purchased of them, determining at the same time to improve his army, and to build strong castles along the frontier. Henry thus became the founder of the Bourgeoisie (that is, the Castle people), and earned for himself the name of the builder of cities. When the nine years had expired, he refused the Magyars any further tribute, and when they attacked

**933.** him, he defeated them with great loss, at the battle of Merseburg. Henry sought also to unite the German lands under one authority, without destroying the characteristic life of the different tribes and states.

§ 210. Otto the First (or the Great) followed the path of his father. He sought



BAPTISM OF ST. STEPHEN BY POPE SYLVESTER II. (*Benczur Gyula.*)  
(pp. 291.)

did no man violence. He protected his kingdom against the Slavs and the Danes, sought to extend culture and humanity by spreading Christianity, and to exterminate the gloomy idolatry still prevailing, with its bloody sacrifices. He was greatly assisted by his brother Bruno, archbishop of Cologne, and Duke of Lorraine, who established schools for Christian education and for moral training in the whole kingdom, and when the Magyars tormented Germany with new invasions, Otto, with his imperial banner, on which was blazoned the archangel Michael, won such a victory near Augs-

**955.** burg, that only a few of the vast number escaped, and their invasions came to an end. Nearly all Germany followed the king, and supported him in this



ROMAN PONTIFF AND GERMAN EMPEROR.

decisive contest. Christianity, which at the close of the tenth century entered Hungary, during the reign of King Stephen the Saint, brought to the Magyars gentler customs, and more love of peace. Otto's coronation as emperor, was an event of great consequence

**962.** for Germany; the imperial dignity henceforth belonged to the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. His marriage with Adelheid, the beautiful and pious queen of Burgundy and Upper Italy, strengthened Otto's claim to the rich peninsula. He conquered the country from Berengar, who had sought the destruction of Adelheid, and was crowned in Milan king of Lombardy. He then marched to Rome, where he was crowned emperor, and compelled the Romans to swear that they would "never choose or consecrate a pope without his or his successor's will and knowledge." This protectorate future popes refused to ac-

knowledge. The union of Germany and Italy brought culture and historic greatness, but was also the source of "unutterable woe" to the German people.

§ 211. Otto the Second reigned ten years: he fought with the unruly nobles in  
**otto II.** Germany and Italy, with Lothar, king of the West Franks, who  
**973-983.** sought to rob him of Lorraine, and with the Greeks and Saracens in Lower Italy, where he claimed possessions as the dowry of his wife Theophania. Naples, Salerno, and Tarentum were already in his power, when Otto was overwhelmed by the Saracen armies at Basantello. Otto himself with a company of his nobles,

**982.** fell into the hands of the enemy, from whom he escaped only by his skill in swimming. He was preparing for a new campaign, when a violent fever car-

**983.** ried him to his grave. His infant son Otto III. was saved by the sensible and faithful archbishop of Mayence. When Duke Henry of Bavaria attempted

**otto III.** to usurp the throne, the archbishop protected the lad until he was  
**983-1002.** able to protect himself. The young king was far superior to his contemporaries in culture and in knowledge, and was called the "Wonder of the World:" yet he lacked the energy to rule a warlike people. He spent a great





HENRY IV. AT CANOSSA. (A. Von Heyden.)

part of his short life in Rome. Here he was crowned emperor, and played with plans  
 999. of world dominion. He undertook a pilgrimage to the grave of Karl  
 the Great, expecting to get strength and inspiration from the relics of that powerful  
 1000. emperor, and then made a barefoot pilgrimage to the grave of Adel-  
 bert, the missionary. As the year 1000 approached, in which the world was expected  
 to come to an end, Otto increased his penance and his prayers. He intended to make  
 "Golden Rome" the capital of his kingdom, but death removed him from his plans:

1002. he died unmarried, and his kingdom passed to Henry II. of Bavaria.

§ 212. Henry had great trouble with the Germans, Italians, and Slavs, but he  
 Henry II. met his enemies with energy and success, and both protected and  
 1002-1024 enlarged his kingdom. Rudolph of Burgundy, his mother's brother,  
 promised him the land of Burgundy. His love for church and clergy led him to build  
 the cathedral, and to establish the bishopric of Bamberg, which procured for him and  
 1007. his wife, Kunigunde, the title of saint. To give greater significance  
 to this foundation, the king invited Pope Benedict VIII. to cross the Alps and to ded-  
 1014. icate the cathedral, and he then placed the bishopric under the espe-  
 1020. cial protection of His Holiness. In spite of his coronation at St. Peter's  
 by the Pope, as emperor, and of his attachment to the clergy, Henry II. ruled in ec-  
 clesiastical affairs with a strong will, and exercised his protectorate over Rome with  
 solemn earnestness. German interest rather than Italian filled his heart, but the

1024. tumults that followed his death blighted the culture which the Ottos  
 and the foreign empresses had introduced into Magdeburg, Halle, and Bremen. Ger-  
 bert, a man instructed in the wisdom of Arabia and of Greece, introduced mathematics  
 into Germany and the beginnings of architecture, sculpture, and industrial art. Al-  
 though he was regarded by his contemporaries as a magician, he was greatly helped  
 by Bishop Bernward. Latin poems bore witness of some intellectual life, and the  
 schools of the Saxon monarchs preserved the germs of culture. The civilization and  
 refinement which was favored by the Ottos, was also furthered by the discovery of the  
 silver mines of the Harz Mountains. For the increase of money helped commerce  
 and industry and culture.

## 2. THE SALIC FRANCONIAN EMPERORS (1024-1125.)

§ 213. Conrad II., Duke of Franconia, was a man of powerful will and of great  
 Conrad II. bravery, more anxious to extend his kingdom and his renown than to  
 1024-1039. govern in peace. He received the iron crown of the Lombards and  
 the imperial crown at Rome, and annexed the Burgundian kingdom, on Lake Geneva,  
 the Rhone, and the Jura Mountains. This brought him into conflict with Burgundian  
 nobles and bishops who regarded themselves as independent princes, and refused him  
 obedience: and also with his stepson Ernst of Schwabia, who had stronger claims to  
 Burgundy. Ernst, with his friend Welf, and his faithful servant Werner of Ki-  
 1030. burg, raised the standard of revolt. But they were soon defeated.  
 Schleswig was ceded to the Danish king Canute, and the river Eider established as the  
 German frontier. Conrad's chief aim was to exalt the imperial power. To that end  
 three means seemed to him especially adapted. First, the gradual abolition of ducal  
 authority, and its transfer to the emperor; second, the conferring of powerful church  
 offices upon members of the ruling dynasty; and third, making benefices hereditary





PREACHING THE FIRST CRUSADE. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(*pp. 295.*)



He therefore transferred the ducal authority in Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia to his son, and sought opportunity to do the same with the other dukedoms. He ac-

**1032.** quired great power over the church, and in his second expedition to Rome, he issued the famous edict, which made the benefices of Italy hereditary, like those in Germany. At the same time he determined the obligations and contributions due from the ecclesiastical princes to the emperor. Conrad's son, Henry III. (The

**Henry III.** Swarthy), was a man of great strength, under whom Germany reached **1039-1056.** its greatest extent. Bohemia, Poland, and Hungary acknowledged the supremacy of this German-Roman emperor. To break the opposition of his nobles, he determined to found an absolute imperial hereditary monarchy, and either to unite the ducal dignity in the German lands with the Royal authority, or to make it entirely independent. A schism in the church enabled him to depose the three rival popes, and to give the holy chair to German bishops. He aimed to extend the imperial power over German princes, and over the head of the church at Rome. He subdued Duke Godfrey of Lorraine, and appointed popes and bishops and abbots as he deemed best. He proclaimed in Germany and throughout the empire, the peace of God, which had been introduced by the French clergy. According to this arrangement, from Thursday evening to Monday morning, all weapons were laid at rest; no revenge was to be taken, and no blows to be struck;—an arrangement quite necessary in that terrible time. Henry was absolutely free from the sin of simony, that is from the sin of selling church offices and dignities for money, or for worldly advantages. He loved the church, and governed it for the good of Christendom.

§ 214. Henry IV. was five years old when his father died. His pious mother Ag-

**Henry IV.** nes was at first his guardian, but the ambitious Hanno, arch-bishop of Co- **1056-1106.** logne, kidnapped the young king, and took possession of the government.

**1062.** The stern rule of this prelate displeased Henry; he found more pleasure in the society of Adelbert, Arch-bishop of Bremen, who managed to get him away from Hanno's control. The young Henry surrounded himself with noblemen from Swabia and Franconia, and despised the council of his princes. To punish the Saxons, he took up his residence in Goslar; here he maintained a riotous court, oppressed the people, abused the nobility, and brought confusion into all the country. He treated his wife, Bertha of Savoy, whom he had married against his inclination, with great rudeness and

**1074.** unkindness. The Saxon nobility at last took up arms under Otto of Nordheim. The castles were broken down, even Harzburg was destroyed, and the

**1075.** King compelled to fly. But Henry's superior genius soon gave him the victory over the Saxons, whereupon the latter appealed to the Pope.

§ 215. The papal chair was at this time occupied by Gregory VII., a man of

**Gregory VII.** great strength of will and character, who was determined to restore **1073-1085.** the clergy to their former morality and piety, to make the church independent of secular authority, and to lift the papacy above the empire and every princely power. Gregory VII., when only Arch-deacon Hildebrand, had induced his predecessor to withdraw the choice of a pope, from the Roman people, and to confer it upon a college of cardinals. When he became pope, he set about the purification of the church; he issued severe edicts against simony; deposed and banished the bishops who had reached their places by purchase or bribery; forbade lay investiture (appointment to ecclesiastical offices by secular princes). He then made celibacy binding upon



BATTLE OF DORYLEUM. (*Gustave Doré.*)

(pp 297.)

every member of the Hierarchy, from the highest to the lowest. The appeal of the Saxons therefore was a welcome opportunity to the daring Pope, for it enabled him to proclaim that the pope, as the Vicar of Christ, was superior to all temporal princes: that emperors, kings, and dukes, were vassals of his holiness. He cited Henry IV. to

**1076.** trial. The King, instead of appearing, called an assembly of his clergy to depose the Pope, and announced to Gregory their resolves in a scornful epistle addressed to "Hildebrand not a pope but a false monk." Gregory thereupon excommunicated the king and his adherents, and deposed him from his throne. Henry's

difficulties with the Saxons, and with his virtuous wife, from whom he wished to be divorced, were producing general discontent. He saw himself deserted by his people, and the princes assembled in Tribur announced to him his dethronement, if he was not released from the papal curse before a year expired. Henry thereupon hastened, accompanied by his faithful wife and a single servant, across the Alps in the dead of

**1077.** winter. The Pope was at Canossa, the castle of the Countess Mathilda of Tuscany, when Henry arrived, but would not admit the emperor to his presence, until he put on a penitent's garb, and waited meekly in the castle yard for a short time, on three successive days. After this humiliation, the excommunication was made void.



GREGORY VII., HILDEBRAND THE GREAT.

§ 216. During Henry's absence, his enemies had elected Rudolph, of Swabia, king. A civil war ensued, in which Henry was victor, through his superior talent and the sup-

**1080.** port of his faithful cities. Rudolph soon lost his life and Henry was now able to undertake a war of revenge against Gregory, who had renewed the bann against him. Henry gave the command in Germany to his son-in-law Frederick of

**1081-1083.** Hohenstaufen, duke of Swabia, and marched with his army across the Alps. A church council called by him at Padua deposed Gregory, and elected Clement III. to the papal chair. Henry then besieged Rome, and after a two years' struggle, on the shores of the Tiber, he entered the eternal city in triumph. Gregory defended himself bravely in the castle of St. Angelo, and was finally rescued by Robert Guiscard with his Normans and his Saracens. But the terrible ravages of





MASSACRE AT ANTIOCH. (*Gustave Doré.*)

Robert's soldiers so embittered the Romans, that the Pope thought it best to retire to Salerno, where he died the following year. His last words were "I loved justice and hated unrighteousness, therefore I die an exile." But Henry's sufferings were not ended with the death of his mighty antagonist. The princes of Ger-

many had chosen a new king, Hermann of Salm, and the successors of Gregory prepared for him many foes in Italy, and excommunicated him anew; and to fill up the cup of his misery, his own sons rebelled against him. Conrad was driven forth and died in disgrace, but Henry who was already crowned, lifted also the sword against his father. The son took the father prisoner, compelled him at the Diet of Ingleheim to surrender his castles and his kingdom, and when the emperor escaped from prison, the war was carried on, until, bowed down with sorrow and misfortune;

Henry IV. died in Luetlich. And even now the monarch was not at rest. His body lay for five years in an unconsecrated chapel at Speyer, before it was permitted to lie in the imperial vaults. Henry IV. was a gifted nature brave and generous, but uncontrolled in his passions and desires. And the spirit of the time was against him.

§ 217. Henry V. continued his alliance with the Pope, so long as he fought against

his father, but hardly was he

in sole possession of his throne, before he reopened the quarrel about investiture. In the Church of St. Peter at Rome, he took Pope Pascal II. with all his cardinals prisoners, compelled him to crown him emperor, and to make concessions. When Pascal took these concessions

back, war conflicts and negotiations followed. Pope and anti-pope shattered empire and church.

Henry was excommunicated. Finally a *concordat* was agreed upon at Worms, in which Pope Calixtus II. agreed that bishops and abbots should be freely chosen in the presence of a royal



KNIGHT AND SQUIRE DURING THE FIRST CRUSADE. (11th Century.)

ambassador, but should be invested with their *spiritual* authority by the pope. The emperor however should invest them with their *temporal* possessions and rights, by the touch of his sceptre. The severity of Henry against rebellious princes, prevented these from placing his nearest relative Friederich of Hohenstaufen on the throne left

vacant by his death. They chose Lothar the Saxon, the heir of Otto of Nordheim. But when the Hohenstaufen brothers refused fealty to

the new king, Lothar united with Henry the Proud, of Bavaria. He married the daughter of this Welfish house, and thus increased the great possessions of this family, by the inherited estates of Nordheim, and the splendor of Bavaria, by annexing the Saxon dukedom. The Hohenstaufens were unable to resist this great superiority; they were compelled, after a destructive civil war, to acknowledge Lothar







1133. as their overlord, and to accompany him on his second march to Italy. In his first march thither he had obtained the imperial crown, but with it very little glory.

#### IV. THE SUPREMACY OF THE CHURCH IN THE TIME OF THE CRUSADES.

##### 1. THE CRUSADES.

###### § 218.



PIILGRIMAGES to Jerusalem and to the holy sepulchre, began to be customary as early as the fourth century. Penitents and seekers for salvation went to the church that had been built by the empress Helena, to offer prayer, or to the Jordan to wash away their sins in its waters. As Christianity extended its sway, these pilgrimages became more frequent, and so long as

the Arabs were in possession of Palestine, the pilgrims were unmolested. But when Syria and Palestine fell into the hands of the Seljuk Turks, both the natives and the way-farers were evilly treated. They must pay taxes, were frequently robbed, outraged, and even murdered. Peter of Amiens, a returning pilgrim, appealed to Pope Urban II., depicted to him the sufferings of the Christians of the East, and received permission to go through city and country to stir up the people to the great enterprise of freeing the Holy Land from the power



COIN SHOWING THE HOLY SEPULCHRE.

of the infidels. A great excitement was produced by the preaching of this eloquent monk, and when Pope Urban held the council at

1095.

Clermont, in Southern France, to stir up the West against the East, the council was attended by a throng of bishops and nobles, and an immense crowd of people of all classes. The Pope closed his fiery exhortation with the cry, "Let every one deny himself and take up his cross that he may win Christ!" "It is the will of God," shouted the multitude with one voice, and thousands kneeled down seeking admission into the company of holy warriors. They attached a red cross to the right shoulder, and were therefore called Crusaders. Absolution from their sins, and eternal life in heaven, were promised to the warriors, and not a few earthly advantages besides.

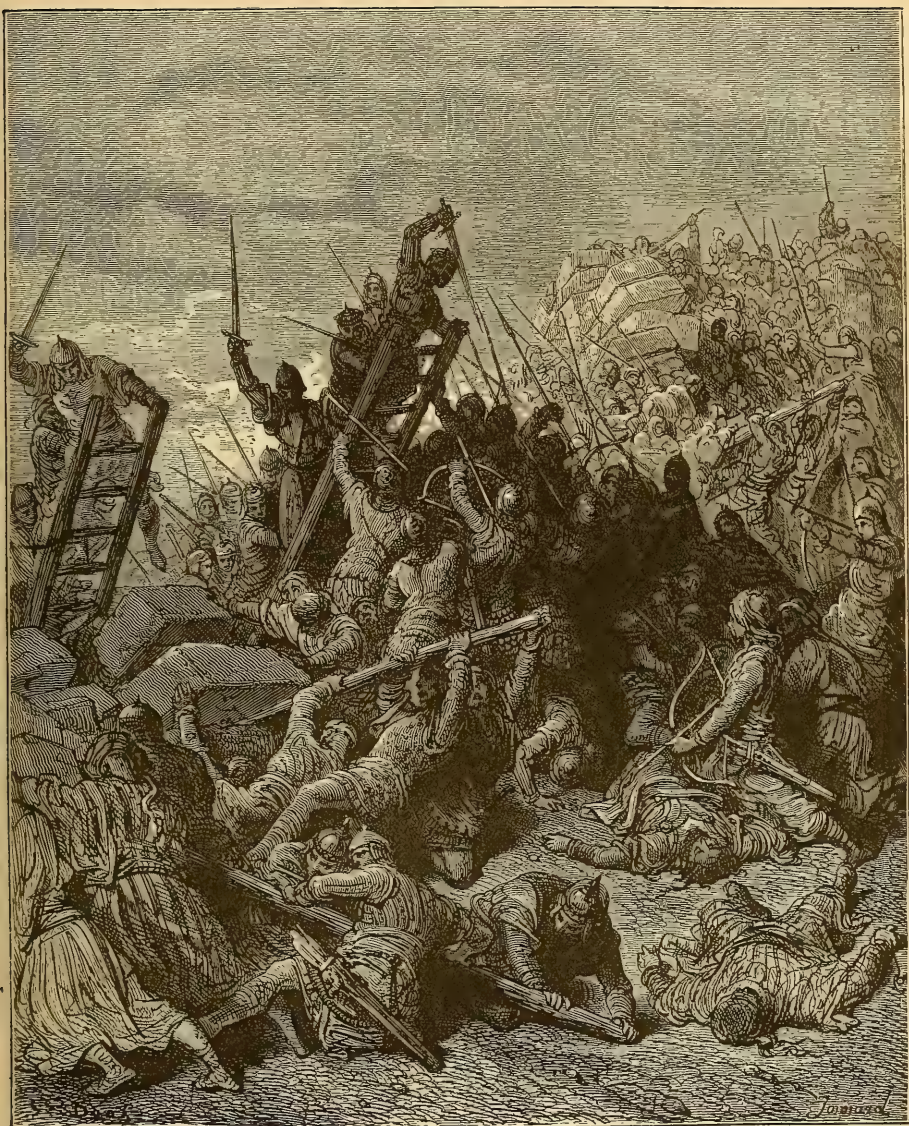
1096-1099.

§ 219. But the excitement was so great, that the Crusaders were unwilling to await their march out in early Spring, in a disor-



GODFREY DE BOUILLON.

the preparations of the princes. So



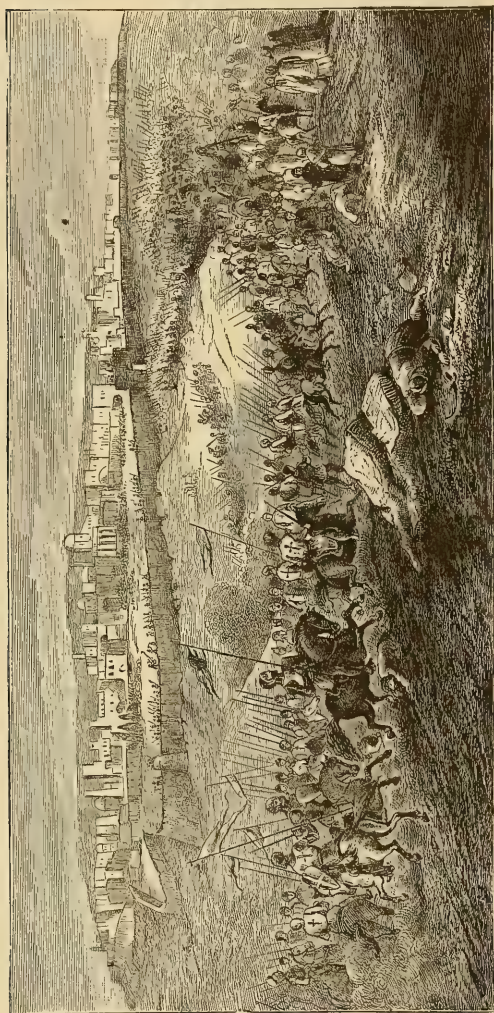
FALL OF ACRE. (*Gustave Doré*)

(pp. 303.)



dered and poorly armed mob, under the lead of Peter the Hermit, and of a French knight, Walter the Penniless. They wended their way through Ger-

1096.



CRUSADERS APPROACHING JERUSALEM.

many toward Constantinople. The war-like tribes on the lower Danube refused them passage and food; thereupon they attacked Belgrade, and filled the land with pillage and murder. The enraged inhabitants rose up against them, and slew them by the thousands. The survivors, with their leaders, reached Constantinople, but all except a few perished in Asia Minor at the hands of the Turks. Walter fell in battle, surrounded by his brothers and his bravest companions. Another mob plundered the Jews along the Rhine, in Strasburg, Worms, and Mayence, and marched then to a similar destruction, under the lead of the priest Gottschalk, and of the rude count Emiko von Leinigen.

§ 220. A hundred thousand had already perished, when Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, with his brothers and a crowd of well-equipped knights, marched to Constantinople, and Hugo, the brother of the French king, and Tancred set out by sea for the holy Sepulcher. Alexius Comnenus, the emperor, would not allow them to pass over into Asia, until they

promised to restore to him the cities that formerly belonged to the Eastern empire. They passed over to Nicea, where in a great review, they numbered





RICHARD I, CŒUR DE LION, ORDERS THE EXECUTION OF 2000 SARACENIC HOSTAGES.  
(A. de Neuville.) (pp. 305.)

100,000 knights and 300,000 foot soldiers. Among their leaders was Robert of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror, Stephen of Blois, who had "as many castles as there were days in the year," and the rich and powerful Raymond, of Toulouse. The conquest of Nicea was their first great achievement. Thence they marched into the country of the Sultan and defeated the Turks, in the battle of Dory-

**1097.** laëum. But famine soon attacked them, and the army separated into different groups. Baldwin, the brother of Godfrey, went off to the Euphrates, and founded the kingdom of Edessa. Finally the army appeared before Antioch. But the rich and well-fortified city held out for

**1098.** nine months, and then was only taken through treason. The Christians visited a terrible vengeance upon the conquered citizens, but were themselves surrounded within three days, by countless throngs of Turks. They were only saved by the "holy lance," which was found in the church of St. Peter at Antioch. This so inspired the Crusaders, that they broke through the gates of the city, and put their enemies to flight, and thus opened a way to Jerusalem. The priest who discovered the lance was compelled to pass through an ordeal of fire; as he perished in the flames, the lance was no longer believed to be genuine.



COIN ISSUED DURING THE CRUSADES.



FRENCH KNIGHT AND SQUIRE.

§ 221. At Whitsuntide, the army was within sight of Jerusalem. The Crusaders fell upon their knees, shedding tears of joy, and shouting the praises of God. But to conquer the city was a hard task, for the pilgrim army especially, as they had no instruments for a siege. The heat of the sun and the scarcity of water, was more terrible than the arrows of the enemy. Yet their enthusiasm overcame all hindrances. After a siege of thirty days, Jerusalem yielded to a two days storm,

**July 15, 1099.** under the cry "God wills it, God helps us." The fate of the vanquished was terrible. 10,000 Saracens were slaughtered; the Jews were burned to death in their synagogues. Neither age nor sex were spared; the streets were filled with corpses, with

blood and with the limbs of the mutilated. And then, when their vengeance was appeased, they bared their heads, and approached the church of the Holy Sepulcher, with their songs to thank God that he had given them the victory. A king of Jerusalem was then chosen. The first choice was the brave and steady Godfrey, of Bouillon, but he refused to wear a royal diadem, where the Saviour had worn a crown of thorns. He called himself, therefore, the Protector of the Holy Sepulcher. The new kingdom of Jeru-



DANDOLO ON THE WAY TO THE HOLY LAND.

(pp. 307.)



salem became a feudal monarchy. Godfrey defeated the Sultan of Egypt at Ascalon, *August, 1099.* but died in the following year, from the effects of the climate and of over-exertion. His brother Bald-

*1100.* win inherited the kingdom, and did not refuse the royal title.

§ 222. But the rocky country, with its surrounding desert, was hard to defend against the Turks; and the Crusaders were full of discord, disobedience and lust for adventure. Reinforce-

ments failed them, and the situation of the Christians soon became critical, especially when the Sultan of Mosul conquered and destroyed Edessa,

*1146.* and then attacked the Eastern frontiers. Saint Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, in Burgundy, now preached a second crusade. His authority was so great



SEALS OF KINGS OF JERUSALEM.



RICHARD, COEUR DE LION.



CRUSADERS ENTERING CONSTANTINOPLE. (*Gustave Doré.*)

(*pp. 309.*)



*2nd Crusade.* that Louis VII. of France, troubled in his conscience because he burned down a church to which his enemies had fled for protection, obeyed the call, and even King Conrad III. did not venture to oppose Bernard, when he

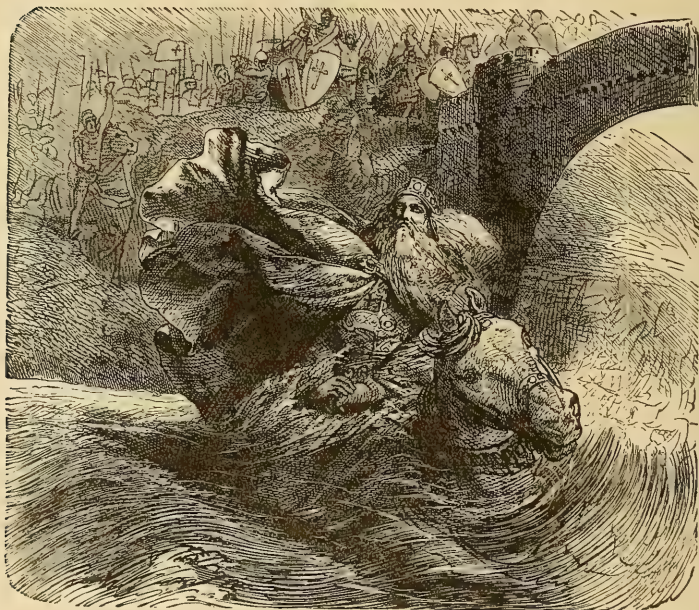


SALADIN.

had addressed him at Speyer, in a fiery exhortation. Conrad took the cross and marched with his splendid army over Constantinople

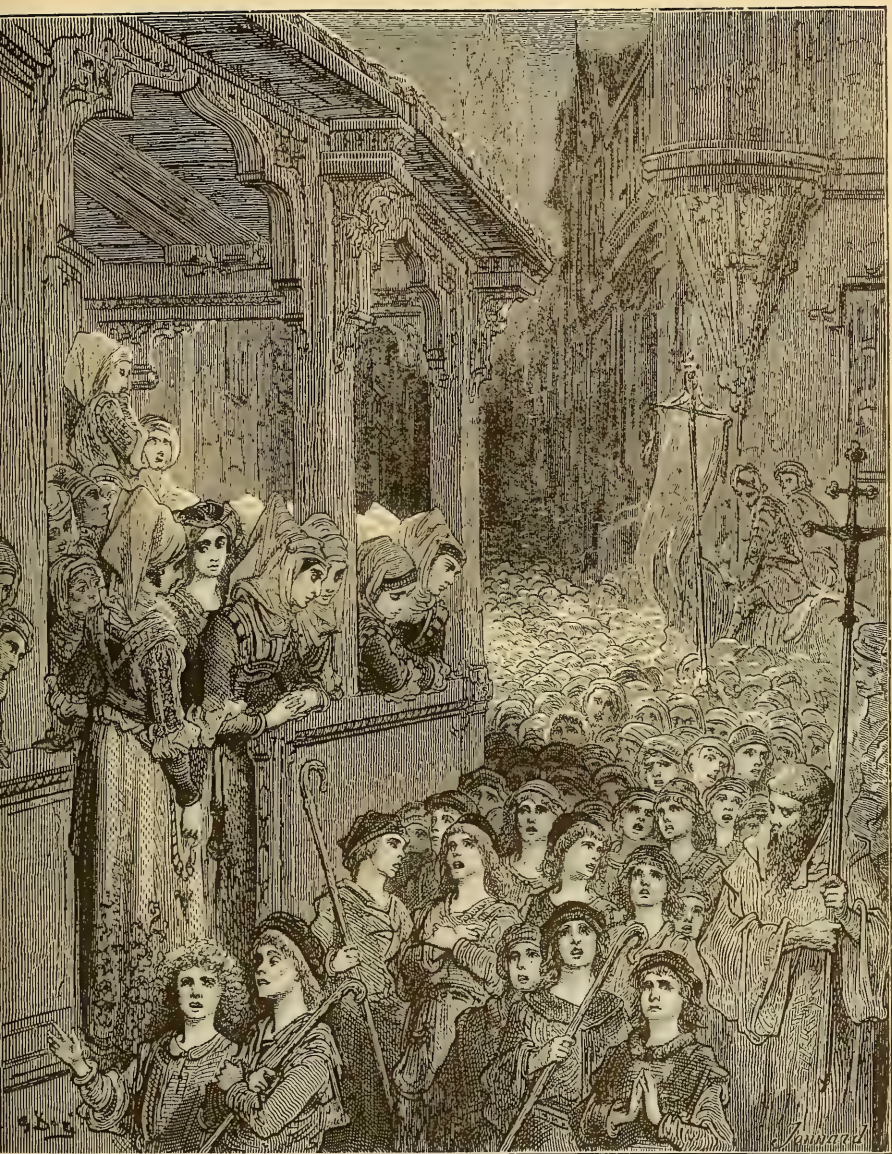
into Asia Minor. But, by the treachery of the Greek guides, he was led into a waterless desert. Suddenly Turkish riders pressed in from all sides upon his ranks, and Conrad's army suffered such loss, that not a tenth part returned to Constantinople. The French army, which marched along the coast, fared no better. The pilgrims perished, either by the sword or from hunger and fatigue. Only a poor remnant of their armies

were led by the two kings to Jerusalem, where they accomplished nothing of importance. The situation of the

DEATH OF FREDERICK BARBAROSSA IN THE CALYCADMUS. (*H. Vogel.*)

Christian kingdom became daily more critical, especially after the brave Saladin took possession of Egypt, and united all the land from Cairo to Aleppo, under his sceptre. The kingdom of Jerusalem was now in distress. Saladin granted a truce; but the truce being violated, the Sultan took the field. The battle of Tiberias went against





the Christians. Their God had forsaken them. King Guido and many of his nobles were taken prisoners. Joppa, Sidon, and Jerusalem fell into the hands of the victor; the crosses were torn down, the church vessels destroyed, but the inhabitants were treated kindly. The victory of Saladin was stained by no cruelty.



SEAL OF JOHN OF BRIENNE.

§ 223. The news of this disaster produced a panic in the West, and led to the third crusade. From the capes of Italy to the mountains of Scandinavia the excitement spread, and armed troops enlisted for the Holy Land. All who remained at home, in France and England, were compelled to pay a

crusade tax. The three mightiest monarchs of the West, Frederick Barbarossa, of Germany, Philip II. of France, and Richard Lion-Heart of England, took the cross. Frederick with his army marched by land through the Greek empire to Asia Minor. After a terrible experience in the deserts and the wilderness, he de-

feated the Sultan of Iconium, in the vicinity of his capital. But as the aged hero was crossing a mountain stream, Selef, he was drowned in the waves. Many of his knights turned back; others followed his second son, Friederich of Swabia, to join King Guido at Palestine, and to take part in the siege of Acre. The kings of France and England, who had taken the sea route across Sicily and stormed Messina, now arrived, and Acre was soon con-

quered. Richard Lion-Heart stained his renown by his pride and cruelty. After the fall of the city, the French king, who was always quarreling with his English comrade, returned home. Richard was now the commander of the undertaking, and his name was the terror of the East. Yet in spite of his strength and his intrepidity, he could not conquer Jerusalem. He



KNIGHTS TEMPLAR.



SEAL USED BY WOMEN OF JERUSALEM.

twice pitched his tents within a day's march of the sacred city, but each time withdrew, having accomplished nothing. Quarrels between him and the French knights, discord among the Crusaders, and the strength of the enemy, prevented his success. Finally the coast from Tyre to Joppa, and the unhindered approach to the Holy Places, were conceded to the Christians, and Richard returned to England. As he passed through Austria, he was captured by Duke Leopold, and delivered to the greedy Emperor, Henry VI., who surrendered him only upon payment of a heavy ransom. The discovery of the captive king, by the singer Blondel, is a well-known story, and in spite of his faults, Richard was a favorite theme of the Medieval poets. His youth had been passed in the warm south, and





ST. LOUIS BEFORE DAMIETTA. (*Gustave Doré.*)



there where everybody sang and fought, he felt himself at home. Song and poetry were always his delight.

§ 224. The fourth crusade came to a singular end. French and Italian knights,



SEAL OF THE KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN'S HOSPITAL.

*4th Crusade,* under the lead of the Count of Montferrat *1203-1204.* and Baldwin of Flanders, assembled in

Venice, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, to go to Jerusalem. Alexius, son of Isaac Angelus, who had been robbed of the imperial throne, met the Crusaders and besought them to reinstate his father in his rights. He promised them a great reward, the subjection of the Eastern Church to the Pope, and help in their enterprise against Jerusalem. They consented to his plans. Under the lead of Dandolo, the aged

*1204.*

Doge of Venice, they sailed to Constantinople, conquered the city, and placed Alexius and his father on the throne. But when they demanded their pay, the people rebelled; Alexius was killed, Isaac frightened to death, and the leader of the rebellion lifted to the throne. The Franks now stormed Constantinople, plundered churches, palaces and dwellings, destroyed the treasures of antiquity, and filled the city with horrors. They hurled the new emperor from the top of a column, and then divided the empire. The Latin empire, with Constantinople, was given to Baldwin; the coast lands and the islands of the Ægean sea were given to Venice; Count Montferrat received Macedonia and parts of ancient Greece; Athens and other Greek cities came into the possession of French noblemen. A feudal monarchy was erected, as at Jerusalem, and the old population reduced to dependence. But the new Latin empire had neither foundation nor



SEAL OF THE ORDER OF THE TEMPLE.

duration. With difficulty it held out half a century against its numerous foes. It fell

*1261.*

then to Michael Palæologus, a descendant of the old imperial family, which had established an independent dominion in Nicea.

§ 225. Jerusalem, far from being helped, was weakened by this crusade. The separate groups, which from time to time came to the assistance of the distressed kingdom, were of little value, and the enthusiasm which drove throngs of children to take the cross, ended in a frightful waste of life. "Suffer the little children to come unto me for of such is the kingdom of heaven." This was so interpreted, that thousands of boys and girls left their homes for the Holy Sepulchre, only to perish

*1212.*

from hunger or fatigue, or to be sold as slaves by greedy merchants and pirates. Andreas II., of Hungary, the Dukes of Austria and Bavaria, Count William, of Holland, and many German



KNIGHT OF ST. JOHN.



DEATH OF ST. LOUIS. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(*pp. 315.*)



nobles and bishops led another company, and just as fruitlessly. Finally, Frederick II. undertook the fifth crusade, at a time when the Sultan of Egypt and the ruler of

*5th Crusade,*

Damascus were making war upon each other. But Frederick was under the papal bann, and the Pope forbade Christian warriors taking part in his enterprise. Nevertheless, Frederick induced the Sultan to make a treaty, in which Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and Nazareth, with the whole coast from Joppa to Sidon, was ceded to the Christians. This enraged the Pope; he declared the peace a web of falsehood and treachery, and laid an interdict upon the city and the Holy Sepulchre. Frederick II. placed the crown of Jerusalem upon his own head, without the consecration of the church. He was abandoned by the Christian knights and the clergy in Jerusalem, and obliged to leave the Holy Land. Fourteen years later, a wild Eastern people broke into

*1244.*

Palestine, conquered Jerusalem, destroyed the Holy Sepulchre, and tore the bones of kings from their grave. At Gaza, the flower of the Christian chivalry, fell beneath their blows. Acre, and a few coast cities, were all that remained to the Christians.

§ 226. The news of these disasters induced King Louis IX., St. Louis, of France, to take the cross. With many nobles, the

*1248.*

French king sailed by Cypress to Egypt. The border city of Damietta fell once more into the hands of the Franks. But as they advanced up the Nile to the conquest of Cairo, the army was shut in between the canals and the river, while the fleet was destroyed by Greek fire. The King's brother and his bravest knights were lost. Louis, with the remnant of his army, was taken prisoner, and escaped only by paying an enormous ransom.

*1250.*

and giving up the conquered city. But most of the pilgrim army never saw their homes again. What was spared by sword and pestilence, was destroyed by the cruelty of the Mohammedans. The pious King, after purchasing his freedom, proceeded to Acre, where he remained four years, during which he greatly strengthened its defences. Meanwhile the warlike Mamelukes. The indomitable



SUPERIOR OF THE ORDER OF GERMAN  
KNIGHTS AND BROTHER OF THE SWORD.

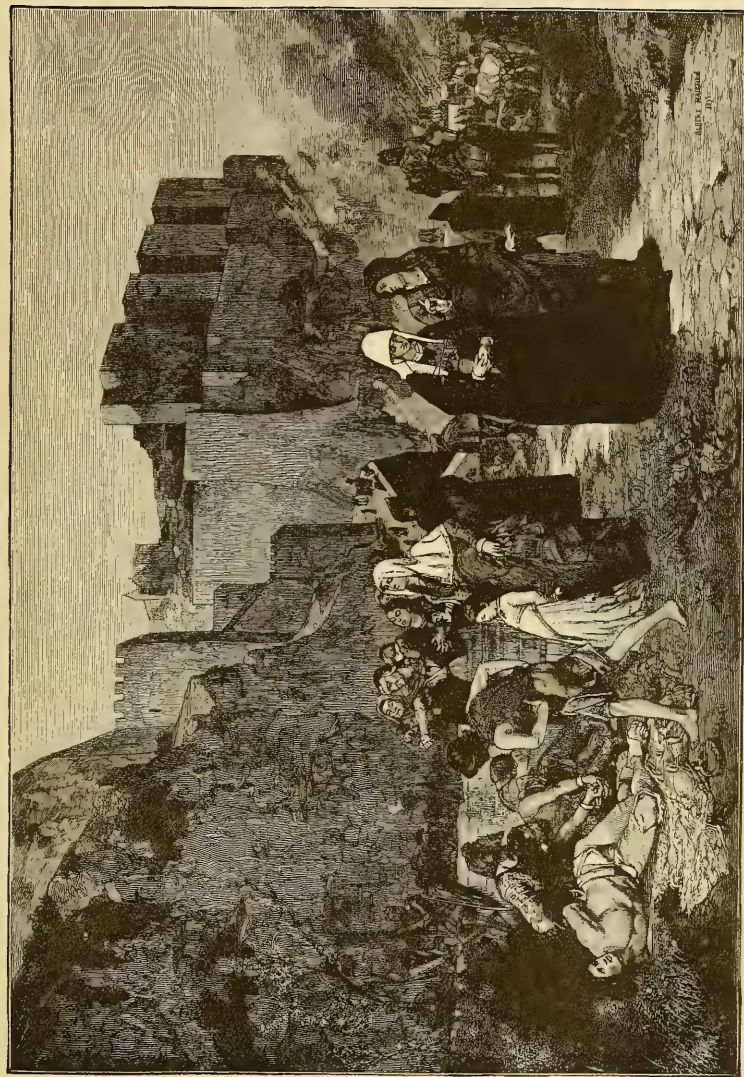


LADIES OF THE ORDER OF ST. JOHN

while, Egypt came under the control of the piratical Saracens, in Tunis, partly to compel them to pay tribute to his brother

*1270.*





THE CRUSADE AGAINST THE ALBIGENSES. (*Albert Maignan.*)

Charles, of Naples and Sicily, partly in the hope of planting Christianity in North Africa. But pestilence carried him, and many of his army, to the grave. The French leaders concluded a peace with the Saracens, and returned home. An expedition of the English prince, Edward I., was equally unable to save the kingdom of Jerusalem. The Mamelukes conquered Antioch and Acre, and the French Christians, of their own accord, abandoned Syria. The consequences of the crusades were very important.

§ 227. 1. Intellectual culture was advanced by them. The Europeans made the acquaintance of distant lands and peoples. They were brought into contact with the sciences and arts of other nations. Their notions of the world and of human affairs were extended and corrected.

2. The crusades ennobled the knighthood. It gave them finer aims, and led to the foundation of the orders of chivalry, which served as models of knighthood, and which united in themselves all the virtues of nobility. These orders were founded in Palestine: The Order of the Hospital, the Order of the Temple, and the Order of the Teutonic Knights. They blended together the spirit of chivalry and of monasticism. They added to the three monastic vows chastity, poverty, and obedience, a fourth, namely, fight against the infidels and the protection of pilgrims.

a. The Knights of St. John grew out of a brotherhood, founded by Italian merchants, in the Hospital of St. John, to nurse and protect pilgrims. There were of these Hospitallers three classes: *Saving brothers*, who nursed sick pilgrims; *priests*, to perform divine worship, and *knights* to fight the infidel and to protect pilgrims. After the loss of Palestine, they removed to the island of Rhodes. This they defended  
1522. heroically against the Turks, but being compelled to surrender it, received the island of Malta from Charles V.

b. The Knights Templar were established by French knights, to defend the Holy Sepulchre against the infidel. Donations and legacies made them enormously rich. After the loss of their possessions in the Holy Land, they settled in France, abandoned themselves to unbelief and superstition, and the order was abolished.

c. The Order of German Knights was founded by Frederick of Swabia. Its activity in Palestine was small, its renown came from its achievements on the Baltic Sea. Called to protect the germs of Christian life upon the banks of the Vistula, these Teutonic Knights conquered, after bloody struggles, the whole country, for German life and morals and culture. Kulm, Thorn, Elbing, Königsberg were founded by them. The forests were cleared, the lands were tilled, but the old freedom vanished. The knights of the order governed the lands, the peasants became serfs.

The Assassins were a fanatical sect of Mohammedans, founded by the prophet Hassan. They lived in Parthia and in the mountain heights of Syria, and were remarkable for their absolute obedience to the "Old Man of the Mountains." Whatever deed was required of them, they executed it with cunning and boldness, and mocked at martyrdom. They had rich booty in this life, and expected to enjoy much beauty in the life to come. They were a terror alike to Christian and Saracen.

§ 228. 3. During the crusades many serfs obtained their freedom. This gave rise to a yeomanry in Europe. The cities, too, increased in power and importance; commerce flourished, and industries developed rapidly.

4. The crusades increased the power and the influence of the clergy, and the wealth of the church. For legacies and donations to monasteries and the clergy,

became quite common, and many estates were purchased by them for a mere song. Moreover, religious zeal was intensified into fanaticism. This led to the persecution of the Waldenses and Albigenses, sects that preserved the apostolic simplicity in their religious life and worship. Provence and Languedoc were the homes of the Albigenses (from the city Alby). Here they lived under a beautiful sky; prosperous citizens, with their free institutions, and daring poets who attacked the clergy with humor-

**1209.** ous liberty. Innocent III. excited the Cistercian monks to preach a crusade against them, and their rich count, Raymond of Toulouse. Troops of savage warriors, led by fanatical monks brandishing the cross, invaded the once prosperous land, destroying the cities and castles, murdering guilty and innocent alike. Raymond withstood his enemies heroically; but when Louis VIII. took up arms against him, the

**1229.** Count yielded, and gave up the larger part of his possessions. But the twenty years' war had converted the land into a desert, and silenced the troubadours for ever.



SIEGE OF WEINSBERG.

The peasant republic of Stedinger was attacked for the same reason, by Count  
**1232.** Oldenburg, at the instigation of the Bishops of Bremen and Ratzeburg. The peasants fought desperately, but were overcome by numbers and by horsemen. Their lands were ruined, their herds destroyed, men, women and children slaughtered.  
§ 229.

## 2. THE HOHENSTAUFENS. (1138-1254.)

The emperor Lothar died on his way back from Italy. His son-in-law, Henry the Proud, claimed the imperial throne, but the great power of the House of Guelph, which ruled over Bavaria and Saxony, and whose possessions extended from the Mediterranean to the Baltic, together with the unpopularity of the haughty Duke, led the German princes to elect Conrad of Hohenstaufen, at the diet of Coblenz. But Henry was in possession of the imperial insignia, and refused his allegiance. Conrad therefore declared him to have forfeited both his dukedoms, and placed him under the



*Conrad III.*, imperial ban. This renewed the conflict between the Hohenstaufens 1138-1152. and the Guelphs, and led to a destructive civil war. At the siege of Weinsberg, it is said the cry of Guelph and Ghibelline was heard for the first time. These cries were subsequently the names of parties. The castle was surrendered to



BARBAROSSA ASKING AID OF HENRY.

1140. king Conrad, but the garrison is said to have been saved by the cunning and fidelity of the women. The war lasted till the death of Henry the Proud. This was followed by a truce, but a permanent peace was not established until his son,

Henry the Lion, received back the two kingdoms of Saxony and Bavaria, from Conrad's successors. Austria however was separated from Bavaria, and raised to an independent dukedom with great privileges. Conrad was a brave and pious man, but the war against the Guelphs, and the crusades undertaken by him hindered his usefulness for Germany. Just as he was preparing to go to Rome to be crowned, his life was taken from him. He had guided the choice of the princes to his high-minded and powerful nephew of Swabia, who was counted the flower of knighthood, and whose splendid qualities the king had learned to know during the crusade. Frederick I.

**Frederick** gave to the empire peace and order within, and authority and safety  
**Barbarossa,** abroad. The dark-skinned Italians called him Barbarossa, on account  
**1152-1190.** of his blond hair and his reddish beard. But the blending of justice and severity in the imperial mind of this powerful man awakened, everywhere, reverence and obedience.

§ 230. Frederick led six armies into Italy. The Lombard cities, especially Milan, had abolished the rights of counts and bishops in their community, and were about to establish small republics. Full of patriotism, and thirsting for liberty, they established a powerful militia, chose civil magistrates and judges, and sought to escape the imperial authority. When Frederick, according to ancient custom, held his review

**1154.** near Placenza, and called upon the princes and cities of Upper Italy to do him reverence, Milan refused. Frederick was unable to punish Milan, but he sought to alarm it by the destruction of some smaller cities. He then received the Lombard crown at Pavia, and the imperial crown at Rome. The latter was his reward

**1155.** for his surrender of Arnold of Brescia. This celebrated monk was a scholar of the famous Abelard. He wished to restore the church to apostolic simplicity; he denounced the temporal possessions, and the luxury of the clergy, and declared the temporal power of the Pope to be contrary to Holy Writ. The Romans, excited by his sermons, renounced the authority of the popes and established a republican constitution. But Hadrian IV., who had risen from an English beggar boy to the papal chair, punished the disobedient city with ban and interdict. The Romans thereupon lost courage; they abandoned Arnold to his fate, he tried to escape, but was captured and delivered to the Emperor, and then to the Pope, and was burned to death, at the chief gate of the city. The Romans, conquered by the German soldiers, were compelled to give up their new institutions, and to submit to the authority of the Pope.

§ 231. When Frederick returned to Germany, the Milanese turned upon and destroyed the cities that were true to the Emperor. Frederick marched into Italy a second time. He called upon the jurists to determine his sovereign rights (*regalia*),

**1158.** according to the Justinian code, and when Milan still refused to obey, he declared vengeance against the rebellious city. A violent war issued in the success of the Emperor. Milan was besieged for a year and a half, and compelled to sur-

**1162.** render. The banner wagon of the city was broke to pieces, and the citizens compelled to humble themselves before their conqueror. The walls and most of their houses were leveled to the ground, and the inhabitants compelled to settle in four sections, separated from each other. The other Lombard cities, frightened at the fate of Milan, consented to receive the imperial governors (*Podesta*). But Frederick was soon entangled in a violent quarrel with the imperious Pope Alexander III., for he had recognized Victor IV. as the legitimate head of the church; Victor having

been chosen by some of the cardinals, and by the church council in Pavia. Alexander excommunicated the Emperor and the Anti-pope, and supported the Lombards, who were enraged at the oppression and extortion of the imperial governors. The Lombard league was formed, to which almost all the cities of Upper Italy adhered. Thereupon, Frederick marched to Rome, compelled Alexander to fly to France; and as Victor IV. had died meanwhile, he procured the election of another anti-pope, Paschal III. But a

**1166.** pestilence attacked his army, and carried off the flower of the German knighthood; among them his best friends, the Archbishop Rainald of Cologne,

**1167.** and Duke Frederick of Swabia. With a fragment of his army, the Emperor hastened to Pavia, whence he returned home, barely escaping captivity in his

**1168.** flight. This apparent judgment of Heaven increased the courage and the strength of the Lombards. They built the fortified city of Alessandria, which

bears the name of the Pope, drove out the imperial governors, and so completely organized their defence, that Frederick was compelled, for a long time, to leave the Italians alone, especially as affairs in Germany required great attention.

§ 232. But finally Frederick Barba-rossa marched with a great army once more across the Alps. But the siege of Alessandria lasted so long, that

**1174.** he feared to lose all the fruits of the campaign, and therefore determined to give battle against the advice of his friends. Henry the Lion, however, abandoned him in his extremity; for this prince thought more of his own advancement, than of the plans of the emperor; and he was, moreover, angry with Frederick, because the latter had induced Duke Guelph to sell the Guelph estates to the house of Hohenstaufen. Although



KNIGHT, DUKE AND KNIGHT TEMPLAR.

Frederick fell at his feet, at Lake Como, beseeching his assistance, Henry refused to be ap-

**1176.** peased; and the Germans were defeated in the battle of Legnano, where the Milauese "death legion" performed miracles of valor. The Emperor himself was missing for some days, but so great was the regard for his greatness, that the Pope and

**1177.** the Lombard league willingly accepted the offered peace. At a meeting in Venice, Frederick and Alexander agreed to a six years' truce, and this finally led

**1183.** to the peace of Constance. By this time Alexander was acknowledged as the rightful head of the Church: Frederick was relieved from ex-communication, and the cities of the league were secured in their rights and franchises. The Emperor or his representative were to confirm the magistrates elected by the citizens, and to have the power of life and death; but civil justice and the administration of city affairs was left to the communes. The citizens were to take the oath of allegiance, and to provide the imperial armies with the necessary supplies. Emperor and Pope gave each other the kiss of peace, in front of St. Marks' church in Venice. Thereupon the Ger-



**1152.** man ruler led the horse of the Vicar of Christ through the cheering throng. Representatives from the cities were admitted to an equal participation in an assembly of princes for the first time in this notable congress at Venice, and the cities of Upper Italy were soon renowned as free republics. Before Frederick left Italy, he accomplished the betrothal of his eldest son Henry with Constance, the heiress of the Norman kingdom, and Naples, and Sicily.

§ 233. The news of Frederick's reconciliation with the Pope, struck Henry the Lion with terror. He had extended his dominion among the Slavs of Pomerania and Mecklenburg, and among the Frisians of the Baltic. He had attacked the peasant republic in Holstein, and acquired for himself a great kingdom. He had opened up new mines in the Harz, founded cities and bishoprics, and invited colonists from the Netherlands. But his deed of violence against princes and prelates were so well-known, that the bronze lion which he had erected in front of his castle in Brunswick, was as much the emblem of his robbery, as of his strength. When Frederick returned, he heard complaints of Henry from all sides. This gave him the desired opportunity to summon Henry to judgment; and when Henry refused to appear, he was placed under ban and

**1180.** deprived of his two dukedoms, Bavaria and Saxony. Bavaria was given to the Wittelsbachs. Saxony went to Bernard of Anhalt, and to the other princes and bishops; much of it to Cologne. But the "Lion" could not be tamed without a devastating war. For a long time he withstood all his foes; he destroyed Halberstadt, and carried off the Bishop; he took Count Ludwig of Thuringia, and his brother, prisoners, and subdued the nobles of Westphalia. Not until Frederick marched against him in person, and compelled Lübeck into submission, and threatened the Duke with a siege,

**1181.** did Henry yield to his great antagonist. He retained for himself and for his family, Brunswick and Lunenburgh.

**1184.** Frederick having overcome all his enemies, celebrated a splendid national festival in Mayence, in honor of two of his sons; and then departed on the

**1180.** crusade, in which he lost his life.

But Barbarossa still lives in story, and in later times; the resurrection of the German empire in its ancient strength and glory, has been connected with the legend of his return to life.

§ 234. Henry the Sixth, his son, possessed his father's strength and energy, but

**Henry VI.** lacked his nobility of character. He was greedy, stern, and cruel. The **1190-1197.** songs of the minnesingers, which delighted his youth, soon ceased to charm his heart; his soul was full of great plans, but the gloomy sternness of his countenance terrified the Italians, like the "blood-red northern light." His life was a continual contest. When the Norman king died, Henry sought to take Naples and Sicily,



GERMAN DUKE AND LADIES.

as the inheritance of his wife, Constance; but the nobles, fearing this foreign master opposed him and elevated a native nobleman, the brave Tancred, to the throne. Henry marched immediately with his army across the Alps. In order to obtain the imperial crown, he abandoned the faithful Tusculum to the vengeance of the Romans. The city

**1191.** was leveled to the ground. A part of its inhabitants took refuge in Frascati, but the King did not overcome Apulia as quickly as he had expected. His army wasted away with pestilence, his wife was carried captive to Sicily, and he himself returned home to confront new foes. Henry the Lion had returned to Brunswick, and taken up his former plans. But the energetic Emperor soon overcame his ene-

**1193.** mies. By the capture of Richard Lion-heart, of England, he deprived the Duke of a powerful support, and obtained the means for a new expedition against

**1194.** Naples and Sicily. Tancred was dead. Henry the Lion soon followed

**1195.** him. The emperor hastened into Italy, destroyed the Norman army, and Syracuse and Palermo. His rage and vengeance were terrible. He filled the prisons with noblemen and bishops, putting out the eyes and tearing out the tongues of some,

**1197.** hanging, burning, and burying others alive. Henry died in his thirty-second year, and his wife Constance, soon followed him to the grave. Pope Innocent

**1198.** III became guardian of their two-year old son Frederick, and made the Sicilian kingdom a fief of the papal see. The friends of the Hohenstaufens

*Philip of Swabia.* thereupon elected Philip of Swabia, while the Guelphs elected Otto,

**1197-1208.** the son of Henry the Lion, to be king. Philip was a man of gentle manners, pure habits, and pious disposition. Otto was a rude, violent and daring knight. The South recognized Philip. The North followed Otto, and a ten years'

**Otto IV.** war ensued, during which violence and lawlessness prevailed. In a

**1197-1218.** single year, sixteen cathedrals and three hundred villages were burned

**1208.** to the ground. Philip was murdered by Otto of Wittelsbach, either from private revenge or in consequence of a conspiracy. Otto IV, who was now ac-

**1209.** knowledged generally as king, and who married Philip's daughter, laid the murderer under ban. He fled to the Danube, where he was slain; and his family castle was torn down.

§ 235. Innocent III. soon provoked the passionate emperor to a bitter quarrel. This pope was a great statesman. He followed the policy of Gregory VII., maintaining that the church was higher than the state, the spiritual greater than the temporal head; that consequently all princes must recognize the Pope as their sovereign liege lord, and judge. During the civil war in Germany, he had supported Otto, and won from him the promise to confirm all the donations that had been made to the papal chair, and to give up the imperial claims to Rome and to Middle Italy. This of course would secure the independence of the papal state. Otto came to Rome to be crowned, but after his coronation, he asserted his imperial rights anew, and even invaded Lower Italy in order to regain the kingdom of Sicily, and to shake off the authority of Rome. Innocent excommunicated him, and sent the young Frederick to Germany, in order to

**1210.** kindle anew the fight between Guelph and Ghibelline. The latter party received the beautiful, hopeful lad with joy. Otto took part as the ally of John

**1214.** of England, in the war against Philip of France, and suffered a great

**1215.** defeat in Flanders. Thereupon Frederick II., of Hohenstaufen, was acknowledged generally as king of Germany, although Otto IV. did not die till 1218.

**1220.** Frederick, after having his young son Henry elected king, returned to Italy, and received the imperial crown in Rome. But the new emperor was a free-thinker, who had been educated in the wisdom of Arabia. He had a strong inclination for Islam and for oriental life, and he soon became a mighty enemy of the Pope. As king of Upper and of Lower Italy, he threatened the temporal power of the papacy; and as a free-thinker, he threatened the authority of the church. Consequently, Innocent and his successors struggled hard to separate the dominion of Naples and Sicily from the German crown and the imperial dignity.

§ 236. Frederick II. delayed so long to carry out his promised crusade, that he was excommunicated by Gregory IX. The next year he started without waiting to be freed from the papal ban. Thereupon the Pope not only baffled all his undertakings in Palestine, but attacked his possessions in Lower Italy. This hastened Frederick's return. He drove back the papal armies and threatened the papal state, until Gregory was quite willing to make peace, and to free him from excommunication. Frederick now gave his whole attention to the welfare of his states; he deposed his misguided, disobedient son Henry from the

**1235.** man throne, and placed his younger son Conrad in the vacant kingdom. He issued edicts to repress the robberies of the knights, and to establish enduring peace throughout the land. He gave to Sicily a new constitution, he favored commerce, industry, and poetry. But in an evil hour he attacked the Lombard cities, in order to compel them to acknowledge his imperial rights. This attempt produced a terrible war of parties and of principles. Frederick made an alliance with the Ghibellines, and with the inhuman tyrant Ezzelino of Verona; he brought into the field his faithful Saracens and his

**1237.** hiring soldiers, and conquered the allied army of the Lombards at Cortenuova. Most of the cities now submitted to his sway. When, however, he sought to compel the Milanese to unconditional surrender, and gave

**1239.** Sardinia to his son Enzo, the Pope renewed the excommunication, supported the Milanese, and stirred up everywhere enemies against the Emperor, accusing the latter of infidelity and of blasphemy. Frederick retorted and answered insult with insult. Finally Gregory sank under the weight of his hundred years, and Frederick seemed to be master of the situation.

§ 237. Fieschi, a Genovese Cardinal, was now elected pope. He assumed the title of Innocent IV. Frederick, when congratulated that the new pope was his friend, replied, "I fear I have lost a friend among the cardinals, and shall find an enemy in the papal chair, for no pope can be a Ghibelline." And he was right. Innocent made a few efforts for peace; then escaped secretly from Rome, and called a

**1245.** church council in the city of Lyons, on the borders of the German and the Roman world. Here he renewed the ban against the Kaiser as a blasphemer, a



STATUE OF FREDERICK II. (*Roman Gate at Capua.*)



secret Mohammedan, and an enemy of the church. He declared him to have forfeited his dignities and crown; he released his subjects from their allegiance, and threatened all the Emperor's adherents with the curse of the Church. The flames broke out in all the

1246. lands of the empire. The papal party elected another emperor, Henry

1247. of Thuringia; and when Henry was defeated at Ulm, and died at the

Wartburg, Count William of Holland was induced to accept the royal title. But the imperial cities, and the secular princes, remained steadfast to Frederick's son Conrad.

§ 238. Italy meanwhile was devastated by the war between the Guelphs and Ghibellines. The hot blood of the vindictive southerners produced incredible cruelties. Family fought against family, city against city. Ezzelino, the leader of the Ghibelline nobles, committed unspeakable outrages against the Guelph cities. Frederick's majestic form long remained upright; the number of his enemies only in-

1248. creased his courage. Even his great losses at Parma could not break his spirit. But when his son, Enzo, fell into the hands of the Bolognese, who held him prisoner for more than twenty years, when his private secretary, Peter of Vineia, proved a traitor, and as he was led to execution, beat out his brains against a church pillar, the Emperor broke his heart. He was just about undertaking a new campaign

1250. against Upper Italy, as he died in the arms of his beloved son Manfred. He was in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Frederick united fine culture with great bravery and beauty of person. Surrounded by splendor and pleasures of every sort, he might have been happy, had he learned to tame his passions and to moderate his desires. His manner of thought, his customs, and his life, were repugnant to the ideas of his time and to the maxims of his church; moreover, he abandoned himself unreservedly to sensuality and to doubt. Dante places him in hell, among the daring doubters who rage against heaven, and for a punishment are placed in fiery sepulchers.

§ 239. Innocent IV. now returned rejoicing into Italy; first, however, stirring up the whole world by his letters against the godless family of the Hohenstaufens. He declared Naples and Sicily to be fiefs of the papal see, and excommunicated Frederick's sons, Conrad IV. and Manfred, because they defended their paternal inherit-

1254. ance. Conrad conquered Naples, but soon passed into the grave. His chivalrous half-brother, Manfred, defended Lower Italy with German and Arab warriors, and was so successful that most of the cities acknowledged him, and the

1254. Guelph troops were obliged to withdraw. This brought Pope Inno-

1258. cent the IV. to his grave. Manfred then won another victory, and was crowned in Palermo king of Sicily. He now ruled like his father, in the magnificent castle by the sea. The Ghibellines were victorious also in Upper Italy, until

1259. their leader Ezzilino was made prisoner at the battle of Cassano, and died of his wounds at a castle in Milan. Rome now saw that the papacy could not succeed by its own strength. Pope Urban IV. therefore made an alliance with the French, and offered Sicily to the energetic but cruel Charles of Anjou, brother of the

1265. French king Louis IX. He was to have it on condition that he conquered it with the help of the Guelphs, and that he paid a yearly tribute to the papal court. Charles landed at the mouth of the Tiber, and was received by the new Pope Clement IV. and the clerical party, as a second Judas Maccabæus, who would smite hip and thigh the accursed heretic and Mahommedan chieftain. Manfred opposed him



DEATH OF EMPEROR FREDERICK II, IN PALERMO. (A. Zick.)

(pp. 327.)

1266. bravely, but was betrayed by the Italians at the battle of Beneventum. He plunged into the midst of his enemies, and died the death of a hero.

§ 240. The battle of Beneventum broke the power of the Ghibellines. Naples



DEATH OF MANFRED.

and Sicily fell into the hands of the conqueror, who made them feel all the sufferings of the vanquished. The friends of the Hohenstaufens were punished with death, the



dungeon and exile, and their property was given to the French and Guelph soldiers. In their misery, they called the youthful Couradin to Italy. This son of Conrad IV. had the lofty spirit and the heroic mind of his ancestors. He left his German home with his friend Frederick of Baden, and a few devoted soldiers, to reconquer the inheritance of the Hohenstaufens. The Ghibellines received him with transports of joy; he marched victoriously through Upper and Middle Italy, and made a triumphal entry



EXECUTION OF CONRADIN AT NAPLES. (*The last of the Hohenstaufens.*)

into Rome, which the Pope abandoned as he approached. At the capitol he received the acknowledgment of the eternal city, and then he marched to Naples. His first engagement with the enemy gave him the advantage, but in his eagerness he fell into an ambush, in which his troops were killed or dispersed. He himself was taken  
 1268. prisoner along with his bosom friend Frederick. Charles of Anjou

had them both beheaded. King Enzo died a prisoner at Bologna. The sons of Manfred languished in prison to satisfy the implacable Charles. Margaret, the daughter of Frederick II., was so ill-treated by her husband, Albert of Thuringia, that she escaped in the night time from the castle of Wartburg, and fled to Frankfurt. As she fled (the legend declares), she embraced her eldest son with such violence, that she bit him in the cheek, and he was known afterward as "Frederick with the bitten cheek." Charles of Anjou raged against all the adherents of Conradin. One of these, John <sup>1282.</sup> of Procida, swore to have revenge. At his instigation, the Sicilian vespers took place. All the French of Sicily were murdered by the inhabitants, and the island was then surrendered to the courageous son-in-law of Manfred, Peter of Aragon, by whose help the inhabitants repulsed all the attacks of Charles, and founded an independent kingdom. A war ensued between Peter and Charles, which neither of them survived. Frederick the Second, son of Peter, was crowned king of Sicily, but Naples continued under French rule for two centuries.

### 3. MEDIEVAL LIFE.

§ 241. The social conditions of the middle ages resulted from the blending of *Feudalism*. German and Roman institutions. To this mixture we give the name of feudalism. When the Roman provinces were conquered, the victors took possession of a great part of the conquered land in such fashion, that the king took all the state property, but gave a part of the land to his comrades, with the obligation to follow him to battle attaching to it. The remainder was left to the former inhabitants. But in order to bind the freemen firmly to his throne, the king gave to some of them parts of his own share with a life tenure. Such gifts were called fiefs. The giver was the liege-lord, the receiver a vassal. In like manner, the richer land owners endowed those without property with parts of their possessions, or with parts of their fiefs, and thus they too acquired vassals. Bishops and abbots also gave fiefs to knights upon condition that they would protect their cloister, or that they would perform military service. The feudal system thus formed a chain of dependence and fidelity, which bound together mediæval humanity, in a most complicated fashion, and greatly limited freedom of person and of property. The crown vassals gradually conquered for themselves the heredit of their fiefs, and became so powerful that they confronted the kings as equals. Rich land holders gradually acquired the property of the poorer class, so that they belonged to the nobility, while the small free holders fell into relations of dependence, and cultivated their former property as tenant farms, for which they paid a rent. Their condition grew worse and worse, until the land population fell into serfdom, were chained to the soil, and given up defenseless to the will of the master. All who lived in dependence, or in serfdom, were obliged to make contributions, or to render services to the lord of the castle; to give him tithes of their fruits and wine and flocks, or to give him money on particular occasions, or to give him gratuitous labor. These were called feudal burdens, and grew more oppressive and more manifold every year.

§ 242. There were three classes in the middle ages: the military class, the *Chevalry*, teaching class, and the working class. The military class included the nobility and the knights, with their vassals and servants. Knighthood was based upon birth, and upon the education of the page. He was required to earn his spurs

by a feat of arms, before he could be received into the company. The main purpose of chivalry was fight; sometimes to prove one's strength or fidelity, sometimes to defend one's personal honor, sometimes to protect religion and the clergy, sometimes to protect women as the weaker sex. The latter led to the minnesingers, the soul of chivalry and of mediæval poetry. Tournaments, in which a noble maiden gave the prize to the victor, kept alive the feeling for chivalry, and that no false knight should slip in under the disguise of his armor and his helmet, the coat of arms was introduced to signalize the name and family of the champion.

§ 243. The teaching class included the clergy, both the secular priests and those *Hierarchy.* of the cloister. They alone were in possession of culture, and had the power to determine man's salvation. Hence they acquired a great dominion over the ignorant, credulous, and religious people of the middle ages. The Pope ruled not only in religion and the church and among the clergy, but he sought authority over secular princes and kingdoms, and regarded the imperial crown as his fief. The chief clergy frequently occupied important state offices, and archbishops and abbots obtained gradually such great estates, that they resembled princes. Proud cathedrals arose, that were decorated with the achievements of every art. A happy life in a beautiful house seemed to be the privilege of the superior clergy. The episcopal authority, which originally covered all the relations of spiritual, moral, and social life, was more and more limited by the Roman supremacy. The appointment of archbishops and bishops became gradually the exclusive right of the church, although these were originally appointed by the secular princes. The episcopal courts were more and more limited, as the court of Rome assumed jurisdiction over all important questions, and placed many cloisters and monasteries directly under papal control. All appointments, appeals, and dispensations must be paid for, and thus much money flowed constantly to Rome. Legates were appointed to oversee the churches in foreign lands. The papal authority thus became absolute, until it was dangerous to oppose it. Every antagonist of existing ecclesiastical arrangements was treated as an enemy of the church, and punished accordingly. These punishments were of three degrees, *excommunication*, which struck the individual; the *interdict*, which struck a city or a state, depriving it of worship and of all spiritual and ecclesiastical services; and the *crusade*, with the accompanying inquisition, in which whole populations were given over to destruction. The power of the papacy was especially furthered, *first* by the false decretals, attributed to Isidor of Spain, a collection of church laws and decisions pretending to come from the first four centuries, but belonging really to the ninth; *secondly*, by the growth of monasticism; and *thirdly*, by mediæval scholasticism.

§ 244. (1) Monasticism originated in the east, where the contemplation of divine *Monasticism.* things and solitary life is regarded as more meritorious than energetic action. So many chose this calling, that at the end of the third century, the Egyptian Antony, who had cast away his riches, and chosen the desert for his residence, gathered together the isolated hermits into a communal life, and his pupil Pachomius, accustomed them to a life in monasteries or cloisters. Regulated by definite ordinances, 529. the system spread gradually to the west. Benedict, of Nursia, in the sixth century, founded Monte Cassino in Lower Italy. This was the first cloister with definite rules for all its members, touching raiment, food, modes of life, and spiritual



exercises. This order of St. Benedict was introduced into all the lands of the west, and many monasteries were erected. The sites of these were usually in picturesque places, and the inhabitants of them took a three-fold vow of chastity, poverty, and obedience. These monks cleared the forests, and transformed the moors into blooming fields. They furnished an asylum to the persecuted and the oppressed. They ennobled the souls of men, by proclaiming the gospel; they trained the hearts of the young to morality and refinement; they preserved from destruction the remnants of ancient literature and science. Many of the Benedictine cloisters, like St. Gall and Fulda, were the nursing places of culture, of science, and of art. When the Order of St. Benedict degenerated, the cloister of Clugny in Burgundy was established in the tenth century, with a view to stricter discipline; and Clugny became the centre of a great confederacy of more than 2000 monasteries, most of which were very wealthy. But this order likewise became gradually less strict; consequently the Cistercian order was founded in the eleventh century, and in the beginning of the twelfth, the Order of Premoutr . The Carthusian monks went farthest in the practice of renunciation. They lived a life of solitary and silent confinement; their food was meager and coarse; they clothed themselves in hairy garments, inflicted upon themselves frequent scourgings, and lived a life of uninterrupted prayer.

§ 245. The mendicant orders were founded in the thirteenth century. Francis *Franciscans and* of Assisi, the son of a rich merchant, gave up his property, clothed *Dominicans.* himself in rags, and went begging and praying through the world. His fiery zeal soon procured him adherents, who cast away their money and property, fasted, prayed, chastised themselves, and satisfied their meager wants from voluntary gifts and alms. The Order of Franciscans, or Minorites, spread rapidly through all lands, and soon divided into several branches. Dominic, a cultivated Spanish noble, founded the Order of Dominicans or preaching monks, whose aim was the purification of the faith and the destruction of heresy. The conversion of the Albigenses among whom the Dominicans lived for a long while, was the first task of this order. The Dominicans were likewise bound by a vow of poverty and renunciation. The courts of inquisition, with their terrible tortures and punishments, were committed to this order. The severity with which they exercised their authority in Hesse and Thuringia, so excited the people, that they slew the judges of heresy and put an end to the persecution. The mendicant monks were the most powerful support of the papacy. In return for their fidelity, the Pope endowed them with great privileges, and relieved them from the jurisdiction of the local bishops. The Franciscans were the favorites of the common people, in whose sorrows and joys they shared; the Dominicans dedicated themselves to the sciences, and gradually got possession of the universities. The greatest doctors of the church belonged to the Order of St. Dominic.

§ 246. (2) The working class included the inhabitants of the country and of the *Cities and Munic-* city, who pursued the arts of peace. The tillers of the soil were, *ipat Life.* for a long time, the only working class of Germans. These were not free, and had no part in public life. But the Saxon emperors and the Hohenstaufens exerted themselves to build cities; and many of the country people settled in them, so that the third estate came to consist of burgesses and peasants, and acquired gradually various rights and privileges. The German cities were divided into imperial



A PRELATES PASTIME. (Ferd. Kriller.)



cities and land cities. The imperial cities were directly subject to the Emperor, and were represented in the imperial diet. The land cities belonged to the territory of a secular prince or of a bishop. The imperial cities were the oldest, the richest, and the most powerful; and it was in them that the municipal life of the Middle Age was especially developed.

The municipalities acquired gradually by donation, purchase, or freedom, certain rights of sovereignty; for example, the right to administer justice, to coin money, to lay taxes, to collect customs. The citizens of the German imperial cities, especially in the south, consisted originally, as in ancient Rome, of patrician families, of artisans and cultivators of the soil who, as clients, possessed no share in these civic rights. The officers and aldermen of the city were chosen from the Patricians; but gradually the lower classes resisted the dominion of the patrician families. To this end they organized guilds. These artisan guilds, the strength of which was to be found in the strong arms of the workmen, soon acquired such power, that they not only conquered everywhere civil rights for themselves, and a share in the city government, but in many cities, the aristocratic element was expelled by a democratic government of guilds. In times of war, these guilds marched to the field with their own banners under the lead of the guildmaster, and protected their freedom against foreign enemies as bravely as they conquered and maintained it at home. Prosperity and power gave them social happiness; and this was manifested in dances, May festivals, and pastimes of every sort.

§ 247. The literature of the Middle Age was of three kinds of theological writings, the most important of which were composed by the scholastics and the mystics. The schoolmen were the philosophical theologians, who made Christian doctrine the subject of their thought and investigation. They used the logic of Aristotle, and invented a multitude of terms and formulæ, and came at last to empty explanations and demonstrations, and to the absurdest subtleties. Their works astonish us by their acuteness, by their fine distinctions, by their skill in reasoning, by their learning, and their amazing industry. Thomas Aquinas, the Dominican, and Duns Scotus, the Franciscan, were the most famous school-men of the thirteenth century; and the scholastics were all divided into Thomists and Scotists. Emotional natures refused to be satisfied with the dry reasoning of the school-men. They opposed therefore, to the philosophy and logic of scholastic Christianity, a religion of feeling, of poetry, and of imagination.

*Bonaventura.* Bernard of Clairvaux who lived in the twelfth century, and

† 1274. Bonaventura, who lived in the thirteenth, were the beginners of this tendency; but it reached its full development in the Mystics. These imitated the life of Christ, sought to overcome the wickedness of the world by chastising the flesh and destroying the lusts of the sense, and struggled after a union with God, at once complete and direct. Mysticism has greatly influenced literature and life, and although this doctrine of humility and self denial weakened the energies, and this excitement of emotions led frequently to fanaticism, nevertheless its influence upon a rude and obtuse humanity was singularly beneficial. The "Imitation of Christ" by the Dominican monk Tauler, of Strasburg, and the little "Book of Eternal Wisdom" by Suso, of Constance, were of great authority. But the most powerful influence exerted by the Mystics, was through the brotherhood of common life in the Netherlands, to

† 1471. which Thomas à Kempis belonged, the author of the famous book of



devotion known in all languages, and read by all Christians, the "Imitation of Christ." The Flagellants were allied in part to the Mystics. When the conflicts between Guelph and Ghibelline filled Italy with wickedness and crime, the cities of the Peninsula were startled by throngs of penitents, who marched through the land singing penitential songs, and lashing their bare backs until the blood flowed, in order to obtain forgiveness from God. The same thing took place in Germany and other countries in the **1340-1348**. fourteenth century, when the *black death* wasted Europe, and was looked upon as a punishment from God. Bands of Flagellants marched from place to place, preaching penitence and chastising themselves, and persisting in their activity, in spite of the Church and of the Inquisition.

§ 248. Mathematics, natural science, and history, were also in the hands of the clergy, although the Greeks and Arabs exercised great influence upon the development of the exact sciences. It was from the Arabian schools that the western clergy obtained a great part of their much admired knowledge. Albertus Magnus, a famous

† **1250**. teacher, was also a great traveler, and so skilled in natural sciences, that he was counted a magician. Among the authors of Latin chronicles and annals, were William of Tyre, the French historian of the crusades and of the Holy Land, and Otto of Freysing, the half-brother of King Conrad III. Along with this learned writing, there were also, at the time of the crusades, historical descriptions of certain periods and events written in French, Spanish, and Italian. Among these are the his-

*Froissart*, tory of the fourth crusade by Villehardouin, Froissart's Chronicles, **1326-1400**. and Joinvilles history of St. Louis. Philip Comines, in his *Memoirs*, **Comines**, is one of the founders of modern historiography. These were written in French. Villani's History of Florence is the most important **1445-1500**. *Villani*, † **1348**. of the Italian chronicles, while Muntanier wrote in Spanish an account of the deeds of the kings of Aragon, remarkable for its epic spirit and its fidelity to nature.

§ 249. Poetry however passed early into the hands of the knights, chiefly because love, and the service of women, was the heart and centre of mediæval poetry, and in this of course the clergy could not participate. In substance and in form it was alike in all the lands of Europe. This likeness is due partly to the international spirit of the crusades, and partly to the use of the Romance languages. In Italy, France, and Spain, and even in England, the languages resembled each other so that the literary products of one land were easily understood in the other.

Mediæval poetry was of three sorts: heroic poems, in which the deeds of chivalry, fights, adventures, and love furnished the material; lyric songs, in which the poet expressed his feelings, his moods, or his thoughts in melodious verses and religious poems, where devotional feeling and pious enthusiasm broke forth into praises of God and of Mary, or pictured the deeds and the fortunes of the saints. The epic poems were based upon legendary cycles, some taken from the antique world, like the Alexandriad, others taken from the Christian world like the story of Karl the Great, and of Arthur and his round table, and the legend of the Holy Grail. To this latter cycle belong the two great German romances of the Middle Age, Parsival and

**1200**. Tristan, and Isolde. But the Niebelungen is the pearl of German epic poetry. It originated at the time of the great migration, but was reduced to its present form by an unknown poet, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. The

stories of Siegfried, who was murdered at the Linden spring, in the forest, the bloody revenge of his faithful wife Kriemhilde, and the destruction of the royal house of Burgundy, by Dietrich of Berne, at the court of Attila, the king of the Huns, are the chief features of this great production. The lyric poets, the minnesingers of Germany and the troubadours of France, gave expression to the feelings of love or to the delights of the mind in the changes of nature, though some times they satirized the manners of the nobility, and the degeneracy of the clergy. The Wartburg, near Eisenach, was the meeting place of the most admired and gifted of the German min-

**Dante,**

**1265-1321.**

† **1374.**

nesingers. The greatest poets of the Middle Age belonged to Italy.

Dante Alighieri, of Florence, created the Italian poetic diction in his "Divine Comedy." Petrarch carried it to melodious perfection in his sonnets, and Boccaccio created the language of Italian prose in his tales and novels. Dante's magnificent poem consists of three parts, Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. Its



DANTE. (*Bronze Bust. Made by Death Mask.*)

melodious verses contain all the wisdom of the Middle Age, the whole treasure of its science, so that one can say that heaven and earth laid hands to the completion of Dante's poem. Petrarch's other works are composed in Latin. Like Boccaccio, he rendered great services in the revival of ancient literature and culture. The art of the Middle Age was wholly devoted

**The Sacred Arts.** to religion. All its various branches united together in building the sublime cathedrals, of which the oldest were in the round arch or Roman style, and the latest in the pointed arch or Gothic. The Gothic style reached its perfection in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The Gothic buildings have a free bold character, and point upward like the faith that produced them. Their chief decoration is the slender spire which forms a

majestic flower, pointing to the goal toward which the human soul is striving. The ground-plan has the figure of the cross. The twilight that is obtained by the painted windows, fills the soul of the suppliant with awe, at the presence of the Almighty. The cathedral churches consist of a choir for the clergy and the high altar, and of a middle nave with a lofty roof, and usually two side naves, separated from the middle one by rows of columns. Sculpture, music, painting, are likewise in the service of the church. The sculpture and carved work which conceal the clumsy and heavy masonry, are to be regarded as parts of the great idea that underlies the Gothic style. The pictures of Christ and his disciples, the statues of the saints, the manifold decorations, reliefs, and symbols, the flowers that start from every corner, all point to the Christian religion, and to the struggle of man and the human soul to reach the divine. The carving in wood and ivory, the metal work, the pictures above the altars, the painted windows, the vaulted roofs, and the lofty columns are also symbols of religious teaching and of the church. The eternal ideas of faith are thus expressed in visible form; hence these older pictures all have the character of peace, because peace is the nature of

God, but a peace full of life and energy; hence too the glory of color that gave variety to unity and motion to peace. The solemn tones of the old church music with the majestic play of the organ promoted reverence; and the chiming bells called men to collect their thoughts, and awakened in their hearts a longing for heavenly things.

## V. THE DECAY OF CHIVALRY AND THE DEGENERATION OF THE CHURCH.

### 1. THE INTERREGNUM. (1250—1273.)

§ 250.



THE death of Frederick II. was a critical moment for Germany. Foreign princes without power and influence now obtained the imperial title, while throughout the empire disorder and lawlessness prevailed. Might was the only right. When

William of Holland fell in fighting the Frisians, the Arch-bishop of Cologne promoted the election of Richard of Cornwall, brother of the king of England, while the arch-bishop of Treves, and his

following, chose Alfonso X. of Castile. Richard sailed up the Rhine, loaded with treasures for the princes who had chosen him.

Alfonso never visited the kingdom to which he had been called. Meanwhile princes and bishops sought to extend their territory, and to acquire sovereignty, while the knights and vassals misused their strength in highway robbery. From their castles, which they had built on the shores of navigable rivers, or beside the main highways, they carried on their life of wild pillage, kidnapping travelers, in order to obtain ransom, and plundering the freight wagons of the commercial cities. They defied the laws and the courts with their strong arms and their strong walls. The Fehmgericht, as it was called, was a wretched make-shift against the violence of these insolent knights. This tribunal had its principal seat in Westphalia, under the conduct of the Arch-bishop of Cologne, who sought to alarm transgressors by the fear of a secret justice and a bloody revenge. Even the powerful Hansa, the great league of Baltic cities and the union of the cities of the Rhine, were hardly able to protect their members. And yet the cities were the only points of light in this dark period.



EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG. (Facade of Strasburg Minster, 1291 A. D.)

They stood for the development of a national society, and preserved the faith in



communal life. But the lot of the peasant was terrible. Village and barn were often burned down and harvests destroyed in the quarrels of the barons. The chase and the wild animals were alike destructive to their fields; the demands for their labor were endless. The law gave them neither rights nor protection, and they were exposed to most cruel and disgraceful outrages.

## 2. THE POWER OF THE HAPSBURGS AND THE LEAGUE OF THE FOREST CANTONS.

§ 251. During the interregnum, many nobles and bishops acquired sovereign rights, and not a few, imperial estates. These they desired to preserve, and hence they did their utmost to prevent the election of a prince, strong in land and people, to the imperial throne. Yet they needed at the same time a powerful man to put an end to lawlessness, and to break the superiority of King Ottocar, of Bohemia, Moravia,



FAMILY OF GERMAN KNIGHT.

and Austria. All these properties were to

*Rudolph* be found in *Rudolph of Hapsburg*, burg; and Archbishop *Werner*, of Mayence, succeeded

in making him emperor. His estates in Alsace, and in Switzerland were large, but so separated from each other, that the electoral princes did not think *Rudolph* dangerous because of his possessions. His bravery, strength, and sagacity, were well-known, while his piety and inclination for the church and the clergy, made his choice especially grateful to the Pope. When, therefore, *Rudolph* had secured to the Pope and to the German princes their territories, and acquired rights, his election was universally acknowledged, and *Alfonso*, of Castile, induced to abdicate. Only *Ottocar* refused his allegiance, and to appear at the appointed diet. *Rudolph*

declared war against him, and with the assistance of his own people and the German  
 1278. princes, won the glorious victory at Marshfeld. *Ottocar* was killed. Austria, Steyermark, and Krain were given to *Rudolph's* sons, and the foundations laid for the Austrian house of Hapsburg.

§ 252. *Rudolph* avoided every interference in the affairs of Italy, and gave his entire strength to Germany. Series of campaigns enabled him to win back many of the fiefs, states, rights, and incomes, that had been taken from the empire. But his greatest achievement was the establishment of peace, and of social order. He traveled throughout the kingdom, and called the robber nobles to his judgment seat. In Thuringia alone, he hung twenty-nine of the knights, and destroyed sixty-six castles. In Franconia, and along the Rhine, he subdued seventy strongholds in a single year.

1291. In one of these expeditions the aged monarch died, respected for his simplicity, virtue, and uprightness, for his intelligence, his impartial justice, and his deeds of war.

§ 253. The princes now chose *Adolph* of Nassau to be emperor, partly because

*Adolph of Nassau,* they feared the increasing power of the Hapsburgs, and partly because they hated Albrecht, Rudolph's cruel and greedy son. But Adolph, like Rudolph, sought to increase his little territory, and used the money which he had received from the King of England to purchase Thuringia and Meissen. This involved him in a war with "Frederick of the bitten cheek." The Rhenish princes were angry at the emperor, because he had taken from them the river tolls, and they, in connection with Frederick and his friends, deposed Adolph, and put

*1298.* Albrecht of Austria in his place. Adolph was slain in battle, but Albrecht continued the unrighteous war against Thuringia. He was an energetic but a cruel man, and incredibly obstinate. In his greed he soon provoked a war with the Rhenish princes who had made him emperor, and carried destruction into the regions along the Rhine and Neckar. He was finally murdered by his own nephew, John of

*1308.* Swabia, whom he had deprived of his paternal inheritance. John expiated his crime as a monk, but the Emperor's wife and daughter took fearful revenge upon all who belonged to the participants in the murder.

§ 254. Albrecht's cruelty led to the foundation of the Swiss league. Switzerland was a part of the empire and was governed by imperial officers. *Albrecht of Austria,* The rich and powerful dukes of Zæhringen, the founders of Berne and other cities, were originally chosen for this work. But this house *1298-1308.* dying out, the counts of Savoy governed the southern portion, and the Hapsburgs the north of Switzerland. This gave them control of the four forest cantons. When the Hapsburgs came to the imperial throne, they tried to make these part of Austria. Albrecht permitted his governors to use the imperial authority, so as to oppress the simple but courageous liberty-loving mountaineers. Three of the Can-

*1307.* tons, Schwytz, Uri, Unterwalden, thereupon formed a league, stormed the castles, and drove out the governors. Albrecht's death saved them from his wrath. But his son Leopold, took up his father's plan. He marched an army into

*1315.* Switzerland, but suffered a terrible defeat at Morgarten. Lucerne then joined the league, which afterward included Berne, Zurich, Zug and other can-

*1386.* tons. In the battle of Sempach, the men of the league, in their fight with the Austrians, proved themselves worthy of their liberty.

### 3. PHILIP THE FAIR, OF FRANCE, AND THE EMPEROR LUDWIG, OF BAVARIA.

§ 255. In Boniface the Eighth, the papacy reached its highest splendor, but in him also it came to a fall. In a war between Philip the Fair, of France, and Edward I., of England, he offered himself as arbitrator. Philip refused, and demanded tribute of the clergy. The Pope thereupon forbade the priesthood to pay this tribute. Philip now prohibited every export of silver and gold from his kingdom. This cut off the papal

*1302.* revenues. Boniface now declared every one a heretic who refused to believe that the king was subject to the pope, in both spiritual and temporal things. Philip on the other hand solemnly proclaimed, through the states general, that his kingdom was independent. He was therefore excommunicated, and France was placed under an interdict. The King sent to Italy to hire soldiers, and made an alliance with the family Colonna, and other discontented noblemen, who attacked the Pope and took him prisoner. The peasants, however, hurried to his relief, but the shame was too

*1303.* much for the proud and passionate man, and he became insane. The

French party now succeeded in getting the new Pope, Clement V., to take up his residence at Avignon, in Southern France, thus bringing the papacy under

1305.



COLONNA AND POPE ST. BONIFACE. (*A. de Neuville.*)

the influence of the French court. This is known as the Babylonian captivity, and lasted seventy years.

§ 256. The Knights Templar were now abolished. Rumors of blasphemous prac-



tices, secret crimes and infidelity on the part of the Order, gave Philip a pretext for imprisoning the Templars, and confiscating their wealth. A six years' trial, marked by dreadful tortures, extorted from the prisoners confessions that appeared to prove

**1310.** their guilt; and when fifty-four of them retracted these confessions, they were condemned to be burned. The Grand Master, Jacob of Molay, protested in

**1313.** vain against such proceedings, and offered to disprove all charges; but he also died at the stake, summoning in his last breath, pope and king before a higher

**1314.** judgment seat. The people revered him as a martyr, and looked upon the speedy death of king and pope, as a judgment of God. The French king took for himself the lion's share of the Templars' treasures, but some were given to the Knights of St. John, and some to the princes of the land. Thus fell the temple which was to reconquer the Holy Sepulcher.

§ 257. While this was happening in France, Germany was ruled by Henry VII.,

**Henry VII.,** of Luxemburg. Henry took

**1308-1313.** measures at once for the maintenance of order, and united Bohemia to his other possessions. He then turned to the long forgotten, discordant Italy, and undertook a march to Rome. His arrival was greeted with delight by the oppressed Ghibellines, and the great poet, Dante, of Florence, celebrated his appearance by a Latin treatise upon monarchy, and by songs, which were soon in every mouth. Henry received the Lombard crown, exacted tribute from the cities of upper Italy, and was welcomed to the city of Pisa. But the Guelphs, Florence, and the King of Naples at their head, rose up against him, and he was compelled to fight for his coronation at Rome. He marched against Florence, but he died



DUKE, PAGE AND NOBLEMAN. (*XIV<sup>th</sup> Century.*)

**1313.** suddenly, not far from the Arno, in the bloom of his manhood. The

joy of the Guelphs gave strength to the suspicion that he had been poisoned by a Dominican monk, from whose hands he had just taken the sacrament. His death broke the last bonds between the states and cities of Italy, and pillage and war raged every where. But, strange to say, commerce, industry, science, art, and poetry flourished splendidly.

§ 258. The seven electoral princes of Germany were now divided in their choice

**Ludwig** of an emperor, some choosing Ludwig of Bavaria, others Frederick of  
**of Bavaria,** Austria. This led to an eight years' war. Ludwig was successful, in  
**1313-1347.** spite of the strength of the Austrian party. The Swiss victory at

**1315.** Morgarten weakened the Austrian forces, but at the battle of Muehl-

**1322.** dorf, Frederick was beaten and taken prisoner. He would not give up the fight, or rather his brother Leopold, sought the support of Pope John XXII., who placed Ludwig under ban and interdict. Ludwig now released Frederick upon

1325. condition that he would abdicate, and prevail upon his party to make peace. Neither Pope nor Leopold would consent, and Frederick, true to his word, returned to his captor. Ludwig was so touched by this conduct, that he would have shared the empire with Frederick, if the electoral princes had been willing. Leopold of Austria died soon afterward, but the Pope refused to be reconciled with Ludwig,



THE GOLDEN PRAGUE. (*City Hall with Clock Tower.*)

1326. whereupon the latter appointed Frederick his viceroy, and started with an army for Italy.

§ 259. In Italy he was at first successful. The Ghibellines and the Franciscan monks supported him, and an anti-pope was chosen. But when he sought money from the Italian cities to satisfy his troops, their enthusiasm waned. The death of Frederick obliged him to re-

1330. turn to Germany, and the papal triumph was complete. The Ghibelline nobles sought a reconciliation with Pope John, and the anti-pope withdrew. John of Bohemia, the restless son of Henry VII., tried selfishly but unsuccessfully to mediate the quarrel. But John XXII. and his successor, Benedict

1334. XII., refused all attempts at mediation, and the German princes finally declared that for the future, every election of a monarch should be valid without papal confirmation. They de-

1338. posed and punished the clergymen who obeyed the interdict. The manifest influence of the French court, and the greed

of the Pope and the cardinals in Avignon, diminished the authority of the papal see. But Ludwig, also soon lost the confidence of the German princes, by his unjust and violent measures, seeking as he did to acquire Tyrol and Brandenburg, and to bend spiritual and temporal law to suit his will. This led to the choice of a rival emperor,

**1346.** but the most of the German people, especially the imperial cities stood by Ludwig, and the new emperor Karl IV., was not acknowledged until both Ludwig

**1347.** died, and his successor was chosen by the Bavarian party. During all these troubles, lawlessness afflicted every city and district in Germany. Each must help himself as best he could. At the same time the empire was visited by earthquake, famine, and the black death. When finally the pestilence died out, the world took fresh courage; men made for themselves new garments and sang new songs.

#### 4. THE LUXEMBURG EMPERORS.

§ 260. Karl IV., was a sagacious prince who thought more of money and territory, than of glory and renown. The princes and cities of Italy were therefore able to purchase from him the imperial rights, and he accepted a crown from the Pope, with the condition that he would remain in Rome but a single

day. The struggle between Guelphs and Ghibellines now ceased, but the princes and free cities quarrelled with each other about territory, and began to employ mercenary soldiers, whose enterprising leaders, (Condottieri), frequently had the fate of peoples in their hand. In Germany, Karl's efforts were directed principally to satisfying his greed for land. He sold privileges and franchises to the imperial cities; he sold patents of nobility for money; he incorporated Brandenburg and other lands into his possessions. In Bohemia, however, his activity was beneficent. He invited thither, artists and artisans from Italy and

**1348.** Germany; he built towns and cities, he furthered agriculture and industry, laid out streets and erected bridges, drained the marshes, and cleared the forests. He erected the first German university at Prague; for this he obtained the consent of the Pope and the co-operation of the Italian poet Petrarch. The university soon counted from five to seven thousand students. Karl

**1356.** IV., was the author of the golden bull, which made the choice of emperor the work of seven electoral princes. These were the three archbishops of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne, the count Palatine of the Rhine, and the princes of Saxony, Brandenburg, and Bohemia.

§ 261. But the imperial authority was almost gone. The ordinances of the empire were disregarded; might made right; each must rely upon himself, or upon such allies as he could obtain. Under Wenceslas, Karl's son and

**1378-1400.** successor, the confusion grew even worse. The king tried to protect the weak, but soon fell a victim to his own passions, and to the difficulties of his time, and became a rude and angry drunkard. While the king thus abandoned himself in Bohemia to the chase, and to his riotous companions, and made himself hated by his cruelty and his tyranny, the German empire was abandoned to distress. The cities in Swabia, in



EBERHARD II.



Franconia, and on the Rhine, formed the league of Swabian cities, for the maintenance of order and defence against the robber knights. The knights imitated their example, and made leagues with each other. These leagues fought incessantly, until the

**1388.** murder of the archbishop of Salzburg, by a Bavarian duke, brought on the war of cities, which nearly ruined southern Germany. In Bavaria the citizens were victorious; in Franconia their bravery enabled them to hold their enemies in check; but in Swabia the nobles were triumphant. The Swiss league fought victoriously at the same time against Leopold of Austria, and his nobles. And in the battle

**1386.** of Sempach, where the brave Arnold of Winkelried made "a path for liberty" through the ranks of the enemy, by seizing their spears and burying them in his breast, the proud Austrian Duke with six hundred and fifty-six of his knights, fell beneath the blows of the Swiss freemen.

§ 262. Finally the nobles determined to depose Wenceslas. He had not brought

peace to the church; he had sold the title of Duke to the rich and able Visconti, in Milan; he had not established the peace of the realm, and had ruled cruelly and tyrannically in Bohemia.

**Ruprecht,**

**1400-1410.** of the Palatinate, grandson

of the founder of the University of Heidelberg, (1386) was chosen king. But in spite of many good qualities, Ruprecht was unequal to the emergency. A number of cities and princes of South Germany formed a league, "against every one whosoever should venture to injure any one of them in his privileges, rights, or possessions." This was an open defiance of the royal authority. Ruprecht fared no better in Lombardy. When he tried to restore Milan to the empire, he was defeated by the Italian mercenaries. The peace of the church was restored with

**Sigismund,**

**1410-1437.** great difficulty by his successor, Sigismund. He was

supported earnestly by Frederick of Hohenzollern, Count of Nürnberg. As a reward for his great services, Sigismund made Frederick the ruler of the Mark Brandenburg,

**1411.** gave him the land in fief and the electoral dignity. This was the foundation of the Prussian monarchy.

## 5. THE CHURCH SCHISM AND THE COUNCILS.

§ 263. For a long time, there had been a clamor for the return of the Pope from Avignon to Rome. But the French cardinals, who felt more at home in southern France than amid the dissensions and bloody struggles of Italy, brought to nought every plan looking to that end. Finally two parties were formed among the cardinals, which resulted in two popes, one at Avignon, and one at Rome. Each declared

**1378.** himself the only true head of the church, and each excommunicated



KNIGHT IN FULL ARMOR AND LADY.  
(Middle of XVth Century.)



HEROIC DEATH OF ARNOLD VON WINKELRIED AT THE BATTLE OF SEMPACH.



the other and his adherents. The Church of the West was rent in twain, and the con-



HUSS BEFORE THE COUNCIL AT CONSTANCE. (C. F. von Lessing.)

sciences of the people confused. Men asked for bread, and the degenerate church gave a

1409.

stone.

The church council of Pisa deposed both popes, and chose a third, but the two first insisted upon their rights, and now the church was in three pieces. Universal bitterness filled the Christian world, and men clamored for a reform of the church in its head and members. The conservative party, especially the learned theologians of Paris, hoped to bring about this reform by calling a general council, but the scholars and adherents of the Oxford professor,

John Wyclif,

John

† 1384.

Wyclif,

urged a complete change in the creed and constitution of the church. Wyclif declared the papacy to be an unchristian institution, and zealously attacked absolutism, monastic life, and the worship of the saints. He translated the Bible into English, and rejected auricular confession, celibacy, and the doctrine of transubstantiation. His most important disciple was John Huss, professor in

Prague, a man of distinguished learning, pure life, and Christian humility. Huss



preached against the abuses of the papacy, against the wealth and temporal power of the clergy, against monasticism and absolution. He was excommunicated by the Pope and his writings were condemned, yet his disciples increased daily, among them a Bohemian nobleman, Jerome of Prague. The German students at the University opposed this innovation, and losing their privileges, in consequence, five thousand students and professors left Prague and founded the University of Leipsic.

§ 264. Finally a church council was called at Constance. The city was filled  
 1414-1418. with bishops and princes from all countries, the Pope and the Emperor at their head, and 150,000 persons in all are said to have been present. The unity and reform of the Church was the aim of this assembly, and the council de-



JOHN ZISKE IN BATTLE.

clared, at the beginning, that its power came from Christ, and that all must obey. The three popes were urged to abdicate. John XXIII., in order to escape this humiliation,

1415. disguised himself and fled; hereupon the council declared itself superior to the pope, deposed the fugitive John, and united with the Emperor to punish the disobedient. One of the two remaining popes abdicated, and the other was dispossessed, after long and fruitless negotiations. But the efforts of the Germans and of the Englishmen to reform the church, before electing a new pope, were baffled by the French and Italians. They managed to get Martin V. elected to the papal chair.

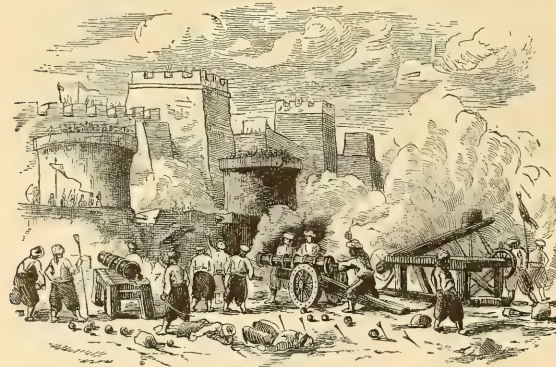
1417. Martin was a moderate man, quite willing to abolish certain abuses, and to satisfy certain princes, if thereby the cry for a reformation could be stifled.

John Huss had also been summoned to this council. Provided with a safe conduct, Huss repaired to Constance, but was immediately arrested and accused of heresy. The pale slender man, whose soul of fire seemed to consume his body, defended him-



CITIZEN AND PEASANTS. (15th Century.)

1419. the state-house at Prague, and murdered the city counsellors; and when Sigismund became king of Bohemia, the whole nation took arms to hinder his taking possession of the land. John Ziske, a man of great skill in war and great elo-



SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

1424. upon Brandenburg and Bavaria. Finally peace was made, but

1426-1430. Bohemia was utterly ruined. A small party, dissatisfied with the concessions made to the Catholics in the peace, separated from the other Hussites, and formed the Moravian brotherhood, a sect poor, peaceful, but bravely true to the Bible.

self with dignity and enthusiasm, but his judges were his enemies; his friends appealed

1415. in vain to the imperial safe conduct. The council would keep no faith with heretics, and demanded unconditional retraction. The Bohemian reformer refused to retract, and suffered death with the fortitude of a martyr. Jerome of Prague was

1416. burned at the stake a year afterward. "No sage," wrote Æneas Silvius, "has shown more courage on his death bed, than these Bohemians at the stake."

§ 265. But these cruelties drove the Hussites to a terrible war. The cup which was refused them in the sacrament, was chosen for their standard (hence the war was called the war of Utraquists.) They exacted a terrible revenge of the priests and the monks, who refused it to them. The Pope excommunicated them, but they stormed

quence, became their leader. The Hussites defeated three imperial

1422. armies: they burned the Bohemian churches and cloisters. Ziske became blind, but still led his soldiers to victory, and was the terror of his enemies. After his death, his followers divided. The radicals continued the Holy War, devastated Saxony, and levied tribute

§ 266. The Council of Basel was called by Eugene IV. This pope hesitated for *Council of Basel*, a long time, then finally consented to resume the work of reform.

1413-1449. But the conferences at this council soon began to threaten the papal power. The assembly being composed largely of the inferior clergy, they diminished the revenues which the Roman see was drawing from the churches, and limited the power of the pope in appointing bishops and other dignitaries. Pope Eugene became so anxious, that he removed the council to Ferrara and thence to Florence. Many, however, remained in Basel, and these chose another Pope, Felix V., declaring,



ALBRECHT ACHILLES FIGHTING THE SWABIANS.

like the council of Constance, that they were higher than the pope. Eugene, encouraged by the people and the princes, who feared another Schism, excommunicated the disobedient members of the council, and rejected their edicts. To overcome the resistance of the Germans, he won to his side the private secretary of the Emperor Frederick III. This able man, Æneas Silvius, induced the weak emperor to consent to

1448. a *concordat*, that left the church in the old state, and perpetuated the abuses and the exactions of former times. Finally the council acknowledged Eugene's successor, Nicholas V., as the rightful Pope, and then dissolved.

#### 6. GERMANY UNDER FREDERICK II., AND MAXIMILIAN I.

§ 267. The Luxemburg family expired with Sigismund. His son-in-law, Al-



*Albrecht II.*, brecht II., of Austria, obtained the imperial crown, which henceforth remained in the House of Hapsburg. Albert's energy was taken up entirely with Bohemia and Hungary. His



ALBERT III.

*Frederick III.*, nephew, Frederick III., was

1440-1493. his successor; a prince without princely qualities, who met the many misfortunes of his long reign with obtuse indifference. The Turks conquered Constantinople, and ravaged the Austrian frontiers; Hungary and Bohemia chose kings of

1453. their own; Charles the Bold,

of Burgundy, extended his kingdom to the Rhine; Milan and Lombardy were separated from the German empire; the German princes ruled independently, and carried on their feuds without interference. In Bavaria, Duke Ernest of Munich, drowned his daughter-in-law Agnes of Augsburg, in the Danube; in Swabia, 200 villages and towns were reduced to ashes; Saxony and Thuringia

1449. were devastated by a five

years' war; the regions of the Rhine and the

Neckar were ravaged by the quarrels of princes. In short, Germany was everywhere a scene of confusion and of bloody quarrels.

§ 268. This condition produced at last a wish for a better constitution of the empire. The princes however would make no sacrifices of their pretended rights. They dreaded any increase of imperial authority. But Berthold of Mayence, the patriotic archbishop, succeeded in bringing about an un-

*Maximilian I.*, derstanding between Maxi-

1493-1519. milian, and the princes and the representatives of the free cities. At

1495. the Diet of Worms it was agreed to proclaim a peace, and to prohibit, by severe punishment, every private resort to arms. The empire was divided into ten districts, in each of which a court of justice was established. A tax was decreed for the support of the empire and of the army. Yet these reforms really increased the power of the princes, so that they could manage their states as unlimited rulers. The Swiss league refused to acknowledge the imperial courts,

1499. and to furnish soldiers for the



KNIGHT IN FULL ARMOR AND LADY.  
(Early 16th Century.)

imperial army. And when Maximilian attacked them, he was defeated by them and compelled to acknowledge the independence of Switzerland.

§ 269. Maximilian marks the transition from the Middle Age to the Modern Era. He was a mighty hunter, a brave warrior, and a gallant knight. His romantic marriage with Mary of Burgundy, his wars in the Netherlands and in Italy, wear a mediæval character. But Italy was already astir with the beginnings of a finer statecraft and a marvelous intercourse of nations, and alive with the signs of discovery and of invention that heralded a new epoch.

## VI. HISTORY OF THE OTHER EUROPEAN STATES IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

### 1. FRANCE UNDER THE CAPETIANS. (987-1328.)

#### § 270.



HE first successors of Hugh Capet possessed little power and territory. The dukes, counts, and barons, of the provinces, regarded the king as their equal, and conceded to him the first rank, so far only as they acknowledged him to be their feudal lord. These feudal rights of the king, the noblemen were obliged to support; otherwise their own subjects might become disloyal. The posses-

sions of the great vassals were for the most part independent estates, and were no closer to the French crown than the western lands on the Seine, the Loire, and Garonne, that belonged to the English kings, and the eastern lands on the Rhone and the Jura, that belonged to the German empire. The Capetians sought of course to increase the royal authority, and in their efforts were both fortunate and sagacious. Fortunate because most of their line were so long lived that almost always a grown-up son succeeded to his father; sagacious, because the first kings made their eldest sons co-

*Louis VII.,*

*1137-1180.*

*Philip II.,*

*1180-1223.*

*Louis VIII.,*

*1223-1226.*

*Louis IX.,*

*1226-1270.*

courts as the highest in the land. The latter improved the government of the cities,

*Philip le Bel,*

*(the Fair),*

*1285-1314.*

*Louis X.,*

*1314-1316.*

the states general. The clergy also stood as a rule with the crown, and gave gener-

*Philip V.,*

*1316-1322.*

regents, so that when the father died, the government underwent no change. The most important of the French kings were Louis VII., who undertook the second Crusade; Philip Augustus, who took Normandy from the English king John; and Louis VIII., who increased his territory in the south by the war against the Albigenses. But the government of St. Louis and of Philip the Fair had most influence upon the fortunes of France. The former improved the administration of justice, and brought about the acknowledgment of the royal title of king. The latter improved the government of the cities, giving to the citizens many rights and privileges, and calling representatives from the cities into the states-general. As the cities increased in power, they needed more and more the protection of the kings against the landed nobility, and were more and more ready to pay liberally for this protection. The cities voted always with the king in the states general. At the same time they sought to protect the ancient freedom of the Gallican

church against the attacks of the Roman pontiff. The breath of modern history informs the whole policy of Philip the Fair. After the death of his three sons the French throne passed to the house of Valois.

b. *France under the Valois.* (1328-1539.)

§ 271. Philip VI. of Valois inherited the French throne, but Edward III. of

England asserted his claim as the son of a daughter of Philip

**Philip VI., the 1328-1350.** Fair.

He assumed the title of King of France, and made war upon Philip. The Salic law forbade inheritance by a female line, but Edward paid no regard to this. The English were victorious at

**Crecy 1346.** Crecy, and Calais fell into their hands. Philip died very soon after this, and his son, John

**John the Good, the 1350-1364.** Good,

came to the contested throne. Eager to wipe out the memory of Crecy, he attacked the English army, which was commanded by the Black Prince, Edward's heroic son. But John was defeated at Poitiers, and carried a prisoner to London. During his absence, Charles, the Dauphin,



BATTLE OF BOUVINES. (*Vierge.*)

**Poitiers, 1356.** conducted the government. The citizens of Paris, enraged at the oppressive taxes, and the insolence of the nobility, rebelled under the leadership of Marcel. Some of the Dauphin's council were murdered in the palace, and the city fell into the hands of the insurgents. The uproar spread rapidly, and a peasant war ensued.





**1358.** Great devastation followed, and many deeds of violence, until the citizens and the peasants were conquered by the French nobility. Marcel fell in a street fight in Paris, and his adherents suffered cruel punishment. After the rebellion

**1360.** had been put down, France and England agreed upon a treaty, in which Calais and southwest France were given to England, and a large ransom paid for John. Edward III. abandoned his claims to the French throne. But the ransom



**1364.** money could not be collected, so John returned voluntarily to his captivity, and died in London.

§ 272. John's son, Charles V., healed the wounds of the country. His rule was mild and gentle; he quieted the angry feeling of the people by his sagacity, his bravery, and his justice. He won back from the English all their conquests except Calais. But his feeble-minded successor,

**1364-1380.**



CAPTURE OF KING JOHN AT MAUPERTAIS. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(*pp. 355.*)



**1377.** Charles VI., brought France once more to confusion. Two powerful parties confronted each other at court, headed respectively by the Duke of Burgundy and the Duke of Orleans. Each struggled for the regency, while the citizens everywhere rebelled against oppressive taxation, and demanded an extension of their rights. This was a period of popular uprisings everywhere. In Germany, the cities were fighting against the nobility; in Switzerland, the freemen against their lords; in England, the people under Wat Tyler and other leaders, had risen up against the King, while in Flanders, citizen and peasant were attacking nobility and court. But a lack of unity among the insurgents deprived them of the victory, and the uprising was followed by a diminution of popular privilege. The party of the Duke of Burgundy favored the people, but that of Orleans stood by the nobility.

§ 273. Henry V., of England, took advantage of these circumstances to renew the war against France. He demanded back the former possessions, and when these

**1415.** were refused him, he marched by Calais into France, and defeated the French army at Agincourt. The French army was four times as large as the English, yet it was utterly destroyed or captured. The way to Paris lay open to the victory. Party-rage was at its highest point. Popular uprisings, and deeds of violence were the order of the day. The Burgundians, who were in alliance with Queen Isabella, pro-

**1419.** voked an insurrection, in which Count Armagnac, the head of the Orleans party, and many of his followers were put to death. In revenge, John of Burgundy was murdered by the friends of the slaughtered count. This induced his son, Philip the Good, and the Queen to ally themselves with Henry V., of England. Isabella gave him her daughter in marriage, and secured to him and his posterity the French throne. In a short time the whole of northern France was in the hands of the Eng-

**1422.** lish; but in the midst of his triumph Henry died. In the same year Charles VI. ended his life of insanity, and his son, Charles VII., came to the throne. But this made little change in the situation. The English and their French supporters, declared the infant king, Henry VI., the lawful ruler of France, and under the leadership of the king's uncle, the Duke of Bedford, besieged Orleans.

§ 274. It was in this crisis, that the Maid of Orleans, a young girl of Don Remy **Charles VII.,** in Lorraine, came to the rescue of her country. She believed that **1422-1416.** she had been called by a heavenly vision to restore the courage of the **1429.** King, and of his soldiers. Clad in steel, with a helmet upon her head, and swinging the banner of the Holy Virgin before her, she marched at the head of

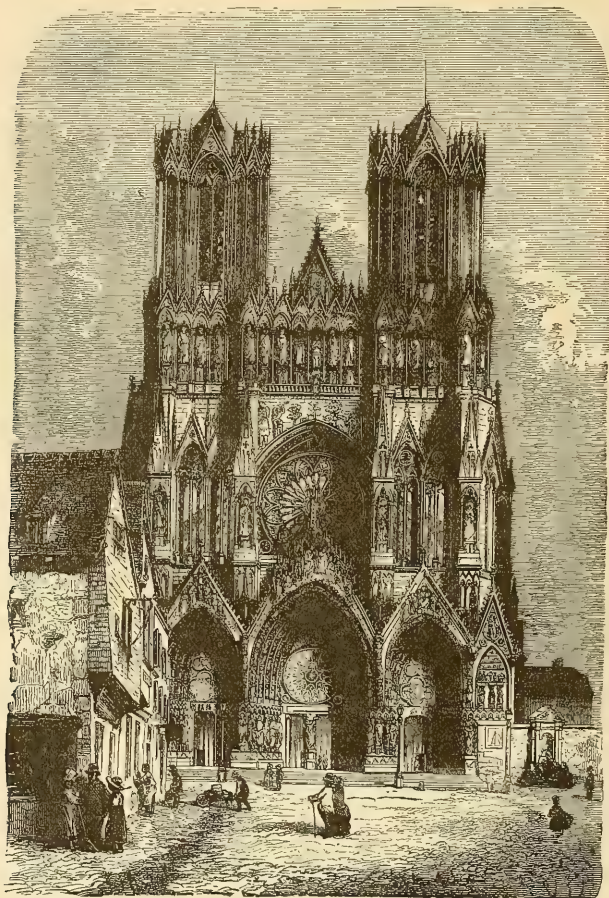


FRENCH LADY AND GENTLEMAN.  
(Middle of 14th Century.)



JOAN OF ARC, WOUNDED AT ORLEANS. (*A. de Neuville.*) (pp. 357.)

the army, and with her inspired exhortations, awakened "the religion of monarchy" in the masses of the people. The city of Orleans was saved; Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims; and the English were deprived of most of their conquests. The belief in her heavenly mission gave the French courage and self-reliance, but created among



CATHEDRAL AT RHEIMS. (*Built by Robert Coucy.—13th Century.*)

their enemies fear and hesitation. This continued until Joan of Arc fell into the  
1413. hands of her enemies. She was arraigned before an ecclesiastical court in Rouen, condemned for blasphemy and witchcraft, and burned at the stake.



**1435.** But the English lost one province after the other, and when at last Philip of Burgundy was reconciled to the French king, Calais was their only possession on French soil.

**1436.** Paris opened her gates and received Charles with rejoicing. This weak king, who was governed by women and favorites, ruled France for twenty-five years, and his reign was one of peace. He was followed by

**Louis XI.,** Louis XI., a cruel cunning statesman, who acquired absolute authority

**1461-1483.** by his tyranny and his treachery, and greatly enlarged his kingdom. He deprived the nobility of their great privileges, united gradually all the great fiefs to the crown, and then, with the help of the Swiss, overthrew Charles the Bold, and

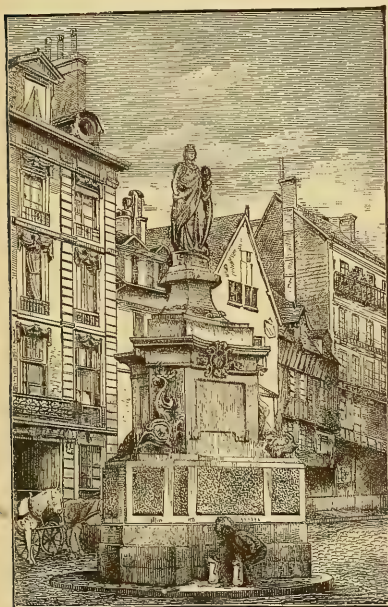
took possession of Burgundy. Distress and fear followed him to his lonesome castle, where he lived the last years of his

**Charles VIII.,** life. Charles VIII., and

**1483-1498.** Louis XII. acquired Brittany, but wasted the strength of their land in expeditions to Italy. The beautiful country of the Apennines was a "sepulchre" for the French, as it had been for the Germans. But during the reign of

**Louis XII.,** the popular king Louis

**1498-1515.** XII., great progress was made in civic freedom, social order, and the establishment of legal rights.



MONUMENT TO JOAN OF ARC IN ROUEN.

(Erected on the spot on which she was burned.)

## 2. ENGLAND.

§ 275. Henry II., of Anjou, the great-grandson of William the

**Henry II.,** Conqueror, was the first of the Plantagenets on the English throne. This family had great possessions on the Loire and the Garonne, and as Normandy belonged also to England, the whole west of France was in the power of these Angevin kings. This produced many conflicts, as the kings of France asserted feudal rights over these territories which the English kings would not concede. Henry II. was

a powerful and intelligent ruler, of violent disposition, but of great talents. He devoted himself especially to the improvement of the law and of courts of justice. His

**1164.** "Constitutions of Clarendon" were intended to limit the power of ecclesiastical courts, and to compel the clergy to submit to the royal authority in temporal affairs, without an appeal to the pope. But Thomas à Becket, the archbishop of Canterbury, rejected the articles of Clarendon, and deposed all clergymen who submitted to them; and when he was threatened with judicial proceedings, he appealed to Rome and fled to France. He remained several years in a cloister of Burgundy, whence he excommunicated the adherents of the King. Pope Alexander III., however,

**1166.** brought about a reconciliation, but Thomas had hardly returned to Canterbury, when he proceeded with his old severity against the clergy, who had accepted the constitutions of Clarendon. This provoked the King to say, "Who will rid me of this proud priest?" Four of his faithful knights stole away secretly from his camp, hastened to England, and murdered the Archbishop at the steps of the high altar. This pollution of the church, with the blood of a murdered bishop, created

**1170.** universal horror, and gave the papacy complete victory in England.

The murderers were punished, the constitutions of Clarendon abolished, and Thomas à Becket canonized as a saint. Thousands of pilgrims journeyed to Canterbury,

**1174.** and the king, some years afterward, knelt at the grave of the martyr, and bared his back to the scourges of the pious monks.

§ 276. Richard Lion-heart and **Richard I.** John Lackland survived their father.

**1189-1199.** John, The first, though

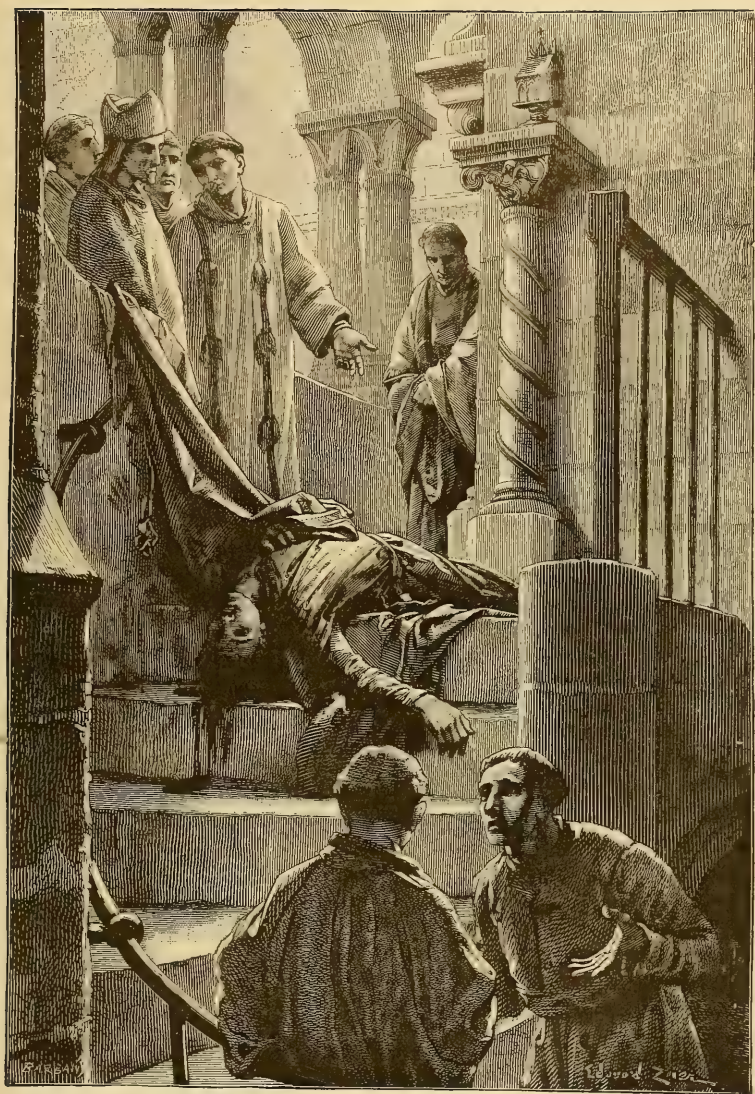
**1199-1216.** distinguished for his bravery and knightly achievements, brought no happiness to England, and John was defeated in all his undertakings and conflicts. His nephew Arthur, he ordered to be put to death in prison, whereupon Philip Augustus of France, as his liege lord, summoned him to a court of peers. John refused to appear, whereupon the

**1203.** French king seized Normandy, and the family lands of the Plantagenets, on the Loire and the Garonne. When he quarreled with the Pope as to who should be archbishop of Canterbury, England was laid under an interdict; his subjects were released from their allegiance, and the king of France was urged by the Pope to the conquest of England. John thereupon stooped so low as to present the crown of England to the Pope, and to take it back from the hands of the legate of Innocent III. as a papal fief, agreeing to pay an annual tribute of a thousand marks. Innocent thereupon relieved him of the interdict, and forbade the expedition of the French king. The English people were outraged at this conduct of the King's, and at his

**1214.** defeat at Bovines, brought about largely by his cowardice. They



JOHN SWEARS VENGEANCE AGAINST THE BARONS.  
(*A. de Neuville.*)



THE MURDER OF ST. THOMAS A BECKET.

(pp. 361.)



hated him too for his arbitrary conduct, and his unscrupulous cruelty. They rose against him, therefore, and compelled him to sign his name to the Magna Charta, which

**1215.** is the foundation of the English Constitution. This charter secured to

the clergy the right to elect their bishops, to the nobility relief from feudal obligations, and to the freemen of the cities protection against oppressive taxes, delays of

**Henry III.,** justice, and arbitrary imprisonment. Henry III. reigned for many years,

**1216-1272.** and though the condition of the realm during the half century of his

rule was deplorable, it greatly furthered the progress of constitutional liberty. His lavish rewards to his favorites, the extortions of the papal legates, and the Italian clergy, so injured the prosperity of the land, that nobility and people rose in rebellion. Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, was the leader of this rebellion. He imprisoned the King and the royal family, until the evils were partly removed and new privileges secured. Westminster Abbey was built during the reign of Henry, who was a lover of the fine arts, and furthered architecture and many forms of industry.



THE BLACK PRINCE.

§ 277. Edward I. succeeded to his father

**Edward I.** Henry III. His reign is memor-

**1272-1307.** able for a series of bloody wars.

**1283.** He annexed Wales to his king-

dom, and introduced into it the English constitution and civil law, and gave the title of Prince of Wales to the heir of the English throne. Another war took place in Scotland, where Robert Bruce and John Baliol contended for the Scottish crown. Edward, who was chosen arbitrator, decided in favor of Baliol, who was ready to call himself a vassal of the English king. This provoked the Scotch to arms. Under the lead of William Wallace they marched against the English; the low lands of Scotland ran red with the blood of heroes. Wallace was taken prisoner and beheaded. The coronation stone of the Scottish kings at Seone was brought to London, and still adorns Westminster Abbey. All Scotland, as far as the

highlands, was overrun by Edward's victorious troops, and yet the Scotch maintained their independence. Robert Bruce the younger, the grandson of the former contestant, after many vicissitudes, obtained the Scottish throne, which continued in his house

**Edward II.** until it finally passed over to the related family of Stuarts. Edward

**1307-1327.** II. had none of his father's energy. He made no conquests abroad,

and was unable to maintain peace and order at home. The nobles took up arms against him, killed his favorites, and looked on quietly as the Queen and her paramour Mortimer drove the unlucky monarch from his throne, and compelled him to die a

**Edward III.** wretched death in prison. But when Edward III., his son, came of

**1327-1377.** age, he punished their wicked deed by the execution of Mortimer and the banishment of the Queen, to a lonesome castle.

§ 278. Edward III. ruled with ability and renown. He limited the power of the

pope by measures in which he was ably supported by John Wyclif, and he gave to many cities the right to send deputies to Parliament, as had been done by some of his predecessors. But Parliament was now divided into two houses. The House of Peers, consisting of the great nobles and the bishops, and the House of Commons consisting of the landed gentry and the representatives of the cities. Without their consent no taxes could be levied, and no laws proclaimed. The war with the French, which has been already described, was greatly to the advantage of the English. It brought them into close relations with the industrial people of Flanders, whereby English industry, the

**Richard II.** source of her modern greatness, made extraordinary progress. But

**1377-1399.** Richard II., the grandson of Edward III., had an unquiet and unhappy reign. A popular insurrection was with difficulty suppressed, and then only by the resolute swiftness of the king himself, and when Richard banished the originator of these troubles, his cousin Henry of Lancaster, the latter formed a powerful party, which deposed the King. Richard died of starvation, in a distant castle in Yorkshire, while Henry of Lancaster took possession of the English throne. This

**Henry IV.** Henry IV. of Lancaster

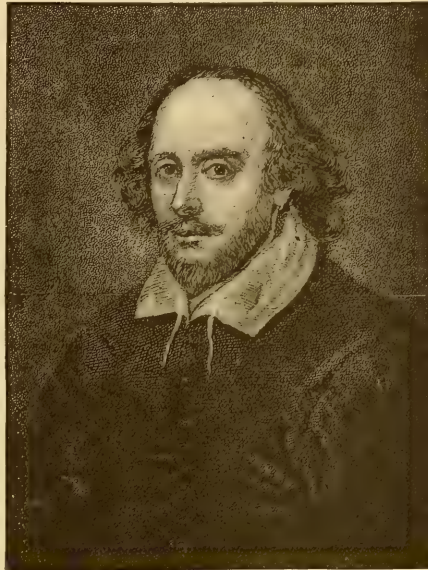
**1399-1413.** was distinguished for the sagacity and the bravery, by means of which he secured the crown to himself and his posterity. The Earl of Northumberland and his son, Percy, known as Hotspur, rebelled against

**1403.** him, but were unsuccessful. The Lollards or disciples of Wyclif were persecuted to satisfy the clergy, many of them being imprisoned in a gloomy dungeon, which was known as Lollards' tower. Henry of Lan-

**Henry V.** cester was followed by

**1413-1422.** his brave son Henry V., whose youthful frivolity and subsequent nobility of character have been portrayed by the great poet Shakespeare. He made great conquests in France, all of which were lost during the reign of his son Henry VI., who was the unhappiest prince that ever occupied a throne.

§ 279. The sixth Henry lost the French crown through the activity of Joan of  
**Henry VI.** Arc, when he was but one year old. But the Wars of the Roses robbed  
**1422-1461.** him of his English possessions. Richard, Duke of York, great grandson of Edward III., believed that his title to the English throne, was better than that of Henry. He formed a powerful party and lifted the banner of rebellion. As the emblems of the House of Lancaster were red, and those of the House of York, white roses,



WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE.

this civil war is always called the War of the Roses. In the beginning, Richard was defeated by the troops of the Queen, who decorated his head with a paper crown, and then planted it upon one of the roofs of York. But Richard's eldest son Edward, revenged his father's death. He got possession of the throne and maintained it through many vicissitudes, until Henry VI. closed his wretched life in the tower, and his son had been put to death. But the blood-stained crown brought the

**Edward IV.** House of York no blessing; for they now turned their weapons against  
**1461-1483.** each other. Edward put his brother Clarence out of the way, and when he himself died, leaving two young princes behind him, his youngest brother,



NOBLEWOMEN AND ENGLISH DUCHESS.  
 (14th Century.)

authority than it had possessed under the Plantagenets.

Richard, had these strangled in the Tower, and took possession of the throne, upon which he tried in vain to establish himself by fresh crimes. Henry Tudor, a descendent of the House of Lancaster, who, by flight to France, had escaped the destruction of his family, landed on the coast of England, and marched against

**Richard III.** Richard III. In the battle of  
**1483-1485.** Bosworth (1485), Richard was

**1485.** slain, and Henry VII. became

**Henry VII.** king of England. Henry mar-  
**1485-1509.** ried the daughter of Edward

IV., and thus brought about a reconciliation of parties, but history can tell of no other war in which so many cruelties were heaped upon each other. Eighty members of the royal family and nearly all the nobility of England, perished in the conflict. The Tudors were able therefore to give to the crown a more absolute

#### 279 b. *Scotland under the Stuarts.*

Meanwhile the Scotch throne was in possession of the House of Stuart. But the nobility, powerful through their estates and clansmen, and accustomed to war and weapons, conquered from these feeble kings an almost independent position. They sought to diminish the royal privileges, and to get for themselves the estates of the crown.

**James I.** Thus the history of the Stuart kings is nothing but a story of struggles  
**140-1437.** and rebellions, and of the fruitless efforts of the Scottish monarchs

**James II.** to put down the anarchy of the nobles. James I. was murdered by a  
**1437-1460.** conspiracy; his bold son James II., who imitated his father's example,

**James III.** died a violent death in the campaign against England; and James III.,  
**1460-1488.** a prince of great parts, was also a victim to this hatred of authority.

This latter monarch sought to modify the rough manners of the nobility by arts and industries, and to increase the royal authority, by following the example of Louis XI. of France. This brought upon him the hatred of the nobility, who were especially angry when the king showed favor to the common people, who shared his love for astrology, music, and architecture. They formed a conspiracy, therefore, murdered his

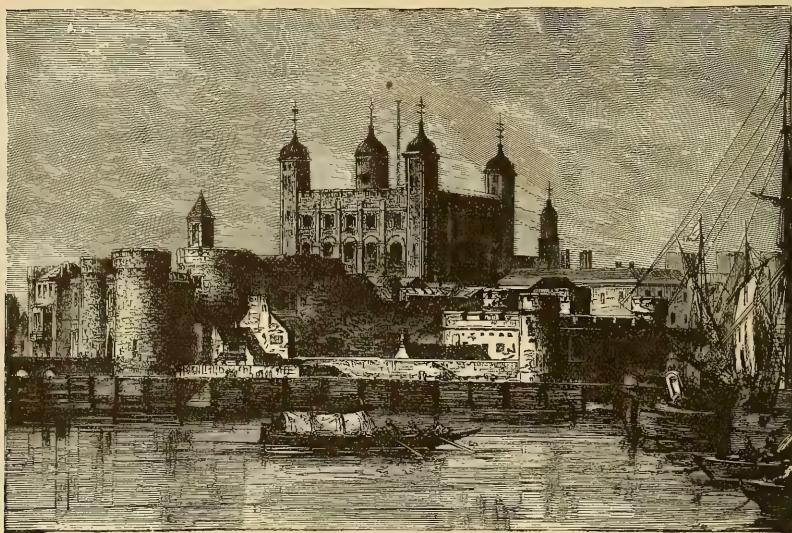




MURDER OF CHILDREN OF EDWARD IV. (*Otto Seitz.*)

favorites, and drove the King from his throne. He fell by the hand of a common soldier. His son James IV., was frank and chivalrous, and found more favor with the nobles. He gave banquets and festivals, and gathered them about him at his brilliant court; but when James IV. made war upon Henry VIII., of England, the Scottish army was defeated in Flodden field. Ten thousand Scottish warriors perished, and the corpse of the King was found the day after the battle under a pile of slaughtered nobles who had refused to survive their beloved prince.

This campaign against England, and its fatal consequences, were the outcome of an alliance of Scotland with France, that proved in many ways disastrous.



THE TOWER OF LONDON.

James V. troubles to both countries. During the reign of James V., Scotland was torn by the rage of political and religious parties, and lapsed almost to barbarism.

#### 279 c. Ireland.

Henry II. was the first king who undertook to conquer the Emerald Isle, with its Celtic population. The permission to do so was given him by the pope of Rome. The conquest, however, was merely in name. Only Dublin and its environs recognized the supremacy of England. Bloody wars divided the population, and destroyed the poetic culture of the earlier time, and the Christian enthusiasm of the seventh and eighth centuries. Native chieftians, who called themselves kings, made perpetual war upon each other, and upon the English conquerors, and prevented the development of industrial art and civil order. Knightly adventures, and warlike romance, constitute the annals



of mediæval Irish history. The people were without freedom, and without culture :— abandoned to the oppression of the nobility, and the control of the clergy. Law and order were unknown. The settlement of English noblemen in Ireland made no change : for these Englishmen adopted the language, customs, manners, even the garb and name of the conquered, and as stubbornly opposed the civilization of the island. The English of the mother country were compelled to conquer their own degenerate countrymen, and the hatred between the two made the wars exceedingly bloody, and increased the division and the race hatred between victors and vanquished.

### 3. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

§ 280. Aragon, Castile and Portugal, were for centuries independent kingdoms. Aragon sought to extend eastward, conquering the coast-lands and the islands, subduing Sardinia and Sicily, and finally acquiring the kingdom of Naples. Castile extended southward, driving out the Moors and annexing Cordova, Seville and Cadiz. These struggles had a powerful influence upon the history and the character of the Spaniards. First they developed a love of war and chivalry, so that the Spanish people found their pleasure in feats of arms, in tournaments and in romantic poetry. Secondly, they intensified religious zeal, and established the dominion of the clergy, which has prevailed continually in Spain. Thirdly, they aroused the sense of freedom and self-reliance in the people, that gave rise to the Spanish Cortes, an institution, the like of which was to be found in no other kingdom. The Cortes of Aragon possessed not only the right to make laws and to determine taxes, but the king was required to get their consent even to his choice of counsellors, and all differences of the Cortes with the king were determined by an independent supreme judge.

§ 281. Peter III., conqueror of Sicily, is the best known of the kings of Aragon ;  
*Peter, III.* Alfonso X. the most important of the Castilian monarchs. The latter  
 1276-1285. studied astronomy and astrology, music and poetry ; enlarged the university of Salamanca, furthered the perfection of the Spanish language, and procured the writing of law books and historical chronicles. But he failed in practical wisdom. Seeking the phantom of the imperial crown of Rome, and eager for pleasure and lux-

*Alphonso X.,* ury, he oppressed his people with taxes, and by his waste and debase-  
 1225-1284. ment of the coinage plunged the land into misery. Alfonso XI.  
*Alphonso XI.,* conquered the Moors, but in order to pay the expenses of this campaign,  
 1312-1350. the tax known as Alcavala was introduced. This required a payment  
 1350-1369. on every piece of property that was sold, as often as it changed hands.

Peter the Cruel, the son of Alfonso, seems to have been insane. He was finally conquered and put to death by his half brother Henry, who then ascended the throne. The marriage of Isabella of Castile with Ferdinand of Aragon united the two kingdoms, and began a new era for Spain.

§ 282. (a.) Ferdinand and Isabella had a single aim. *They sought to diminish the*  
*Ferdinand,* *power of the nobility, and to increase the royal authority.* Ferdinand  
 1479-1515. obtained from the Pope the dignity of Grand Master, for the three rich Castilian orders of knighthood, and also the right to appoint the Spanish bishops. He then deprived the nobility of their share in the administration of justice, established a royal judiciary, and created a standing army for the maintenance of peace and the extinction of robbery. But the most powerful of all his methods was the court of the



Inquisition, in which the King himself was grand inquisitor and the creator of all the judges. This court was not only the terror of heretics, and secret Mohanmedans and Jews, but it held the nobility and the clergy in dread, and fettered every form of free intellectual activity. The least suspicion, the false witness of an enemy could lead to prison and to judicial inquiry. By means of torture, confessions could be obtained from the innocent, and even the bravest could be entrapped by cunning questions and artful subterfuges. Numberless sacrifices marked these *autos da fé* (acts of faith). The damp dungeons were filled with languishing prisoners, while the state treasury was enriched with their possessions. Throne and altar were thus bound together against the freedom of the people. In the later years of their reign, Ferdinand and Isabella were guided in their policy by the energetic and severely orthodox, but able statesman, Cardinal Ximenes.

§ 282. (b.) During the first crusade, Count Henry of Burgundy deprived the



DOGE AND DOGARESSA.

*Portugal.* Moors of Portugal. At first

he ruled it as a Castilian dependency. But his son and successor Alfonso I., after his great victory over the Arabs, assumed the title of king, made the land independent of Castile, and gave it a constitution with an

1143. excellent code of laws. Soon

1147. afterward he conquered Lisbon, with the help of some Dutch and Flemish crusaders, and made it his royal residence. Pope Alexander III., confirmed him in his royal dignity, upon the payment of an

1179. annual tribute to the papal

1185-1211. see. His son Sancho I., who conquered the Arabs at Santalem, acquired for himself the surname of the "peasants' friend," because of his interest in agriculture, and the improvement of villages. In the fifteenth century, the kingdom was extended by conquests in North Africa, and by

daring voyages of discovery. Before that its history is marked principally by struggles between king and nobility, wars with the Moors, and Castilians, and quarrels

1357-1367. with the pope and the powerful clergy. Pedro the Stern, is noted

1385-1433. for his revenge of his murdered wife Inez, and his son John for his

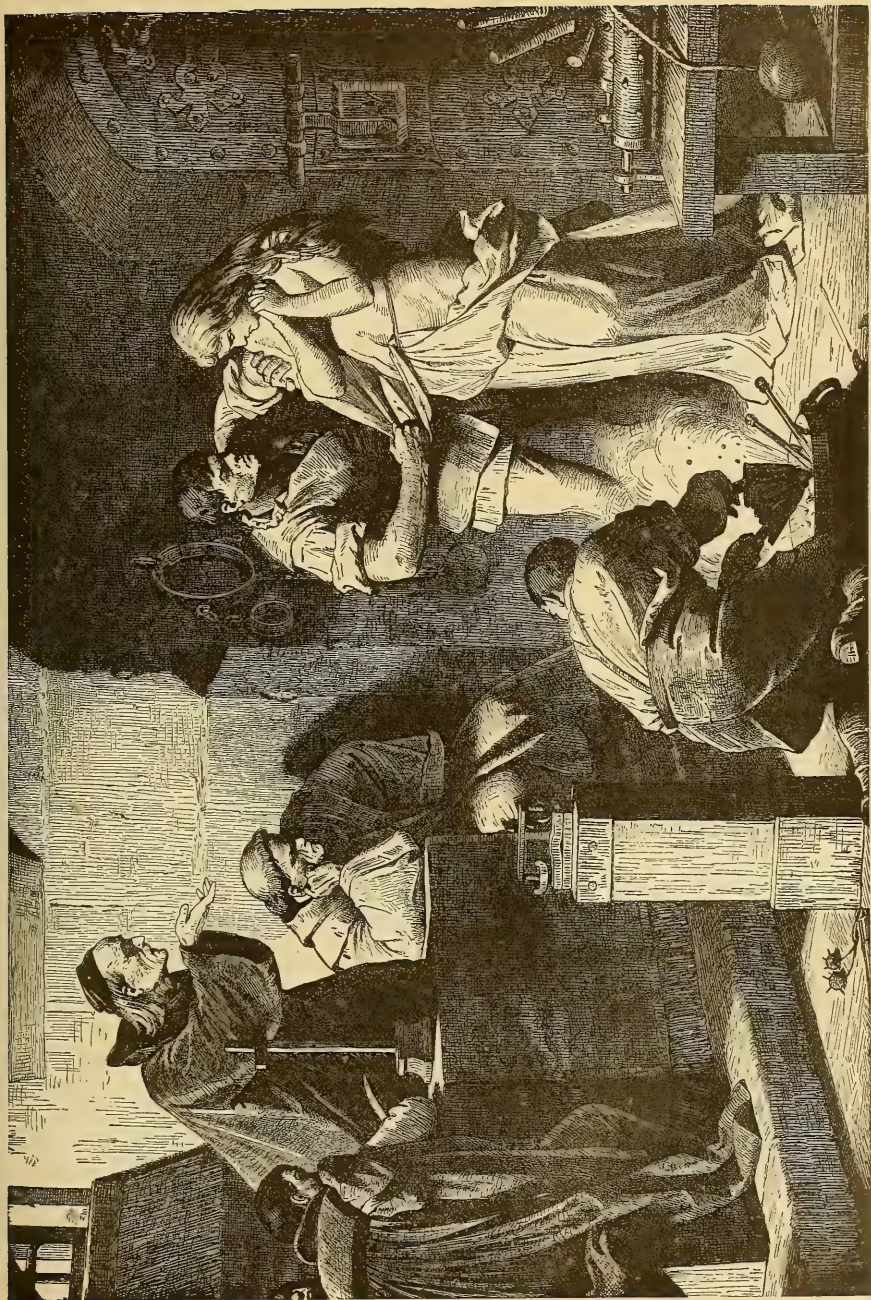
1481-1495. conquests in Africa. The glorious period of Spain began with John

1495-1521. II., and Emanuel the Great.

§ 283. The expulsion of the Moors is one of the most tragical events in Spanish

1492. history. When Granada succumbed, after a ten years' war, to the arms

of Ferdinand and Isabella, religious freedom was guaranteed to the Moslems. But the zeal of the clergy soon destroyed this guarantee. The Moorish inhabitants of Granada, then rebelled at this oppression, and resorted to the sword. But they were subdued a second time, and were given the choice between expulsion or conversion to Christianity. Many turned their backs forever upon their beloved homes; others



THE HOLY INQUISITION.

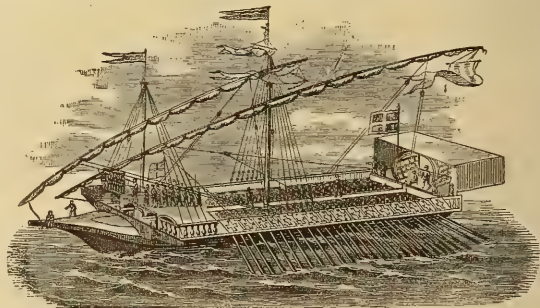


reluctantly accepted the gospel, but were brought to repeated rebellions by the severity of the Inquisition, and the oppression of the government. The fight against the Moors was both a race and a religious fight. Every victory was a step toward paradise. Every earthly crime found its expiation in the blood of the infidel. The fate of the baptized Moors under Philip II., and Philip III., was the most tragic of all. At first they were commanded to renounce their speech, their national costume, and their peculiar usages, and when this proved insufficient to extinguish the last traces of their Arabian origin and their foreign faith, they were driven without mercy from the Spanish soil. 800,000 Moors, men and women, the aged and the infant, left the land of their birth, their fertile fields and the homes built by their own hands. In a short time the fruitful meadows of the south were bare as the desert, agriculture was neglected, industry was arrested, prosperous villages went to ruin, industrious cities were depopulated, poverty, filth, and indolence, covered the once wealthy and fortunate regions, where only ruins remained to give witness of the former glory. The Jews suffered a like fate. Priests and courtiers shared with each other the estates and treasures of the persecuted. Another consequence of this unfortunate alliance of throne and altar, was the destruction of the parliamentary rights and the political freedom of the Spanish people.

#### 4. ITALY.

##### *a. Upper Italy.*

§ 284. Venice and Genoa became so prosperous by their commerce and their ships, that they brought back the days of ancient Greece. Venice confined her attention to the Adriatic and Ægean seas, conquering the islands and the coast-lands in order to acquire convenient harbors and landing places in Dalmatia and Greece, in the Archipelago and at the Dardanelles. This remarkable city, which originated in the union of several islands, had become rich and mighty by its oriental trade. Splendid churches (St. Marks), magnificent palaces (palace of the doges), beautiful piazzas and lofty bridges made it the wonder of the world. But its wealth and its magnificence could not supply the lack of freedom. The constitution, which was originally democratic, was transformed in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, into an oppressive oligarchy. The chief magistrate was an elective doge whose authority was limited. The power of the state was in the great council, to which only a certain number of aristocratic families, whose names were written in the golden book, were eligible. And to prevent any change in this constitution, there was a dictatorship of "the ten" under whose control a secret police force was always active. Spies and



VENETIAN GALLEY OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.





BOABDIL SURRENDERING TO FERDINAND.

(pp. 371.)

informers, subterranean dungeons and instruments of torture constituted a veritable Inquisition. Every footstep was watched, every word was overheard, every movement of the people vigilantly guarded. The attempt of the Doge, Marino Falieri, to overthrow this haughty aristocracy, by the help of the lower classes, resulted in his own downfall and his death on the scaffold. Their insatiable greed for money and estates created a hardness of heart among the Venetians, which undermined all family affections, morality and religion. In the fourteenth and fifteenth century Venice sought to extend its territory on the main land, and acquired dominion over Verona, Padua, Brescia, and many other cities of Upper Italy. This brought the city into conflict with other European states, and more than once to the edge of destruction.



KNIGHT IN FULL ARMOR AND LADY.  
(Early 16th Century.)

Especially in the beginning of the sixteenth century, when the league of Cambray was formed, in which were united the Emperor Maximilian, Louis XII. of France, Ferdinand of Spain and Pope Julius II.,—all bent upon the dismemberment of Venice. The French were at the point of conquering the city, when the senate succeeded in dividing the league and winning over the Pope and the king of Spain. The French were now driven out of Italy. The founding of the Ottoman empire however, was the greatest calamity to Venice. The Turks deprived them of their Eastern possessions, and at the same time the discovery of a sea-route to East India destroyed their commerce. The marriage of the doge with the Adriatic Sea, which used to take place upon the ship of state, Bucentoro, became a meaningless festivity. But the liberality of the rich Venetians, and their love of art, greatly furthered the development of painting, especially through Titian and his school.

§ 285. Genoa was the proud rival of Venice. The jealousy of the two republics led to many wars and naval engagements, in which Venice was usually the victor, although in the Chioggia war, the Genoese fleet sailed victoriously through the lagoons of the city. The marble palaces of Genoa, her harbor covered with a forest of masts, and her bank of St. George testified to her wealth. But the quarrels of democracies and aristocracies, of Guelphs and Ghibellines, weakened her strength and destroyed her virtues. Avarice and the pride of wealth were the ruling passions

of the people. Unable to rule themselves, they sought for foreign lords and came at last, sometimes under the power of Milan, and sometimes under the authority of France. A constitution was framed for Genoa in the sixteenth century by her naval hero Andreas Doria, he having overthrown the French dominion and restored republican forms. But although Doria gained independence for his native city, he could not give her domestic peace. Twenty years later, the handsome, rich,

and cultivated Fiesco, sought to deprive the house of Doria of the chief authority, but the enterprise failed with the unexpected death of the chief con-





LOUIS XII. IN BATTLE. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(*pp. 373.*)



spirator. Genoa's power and commercial greatness, like that of Venice, was shattered by the Ottoman empire and the discovery of a sea-passage to the East Indies.

§ 286. Milan came gradually under the control of the rich Visconti. This family obtained the ducal dignity from the Emperor, founded a terrible tyranny by their crimes and by their mercenary soldiers and banditti, and conquered the greater part of Lombardy. About the middle of the fifteenth century, the male line of the Visconti expired with Philippo Maria, who had greatly extended his power with the help of his general, Carmagnola. Philippo was cruel and faithless, murdered his own wife with cruel tortures out of jealousy, and ruled the people with the utmost tyranny. The Milanese after his death, offered the sovereignty of their city to



GEM OF FLORENCE.

1450.

Francisco Sforza, the ablest of the bandit chiefs, although France and Spain were eager to possess the city. The French king Louis XII., who had claims to the dukedom as a descendant of the Visconti, conquered it because of quarrels in the family of Sforza. Ludovico, the Moor was abandoned

1500.

by his Swiss mercenaries and led away captive to France where he languished ten years in a subterranean dungeon. The great artist Leonardo da Vinci left Milan about the same time. He had adorned it with his "Last Supper" and other important works. But the French were driven out of Italy a few years later, and the son of the imprisoned Ludovico was made Duke of Milan. But the duke and his Swiss soldiers were conquered by the French

1515.

king Francis I., in the battle of Marignano and Milan once more united to France. Ten years later, it fell to the Spaniards and remained in their possession for nearly two centuries.

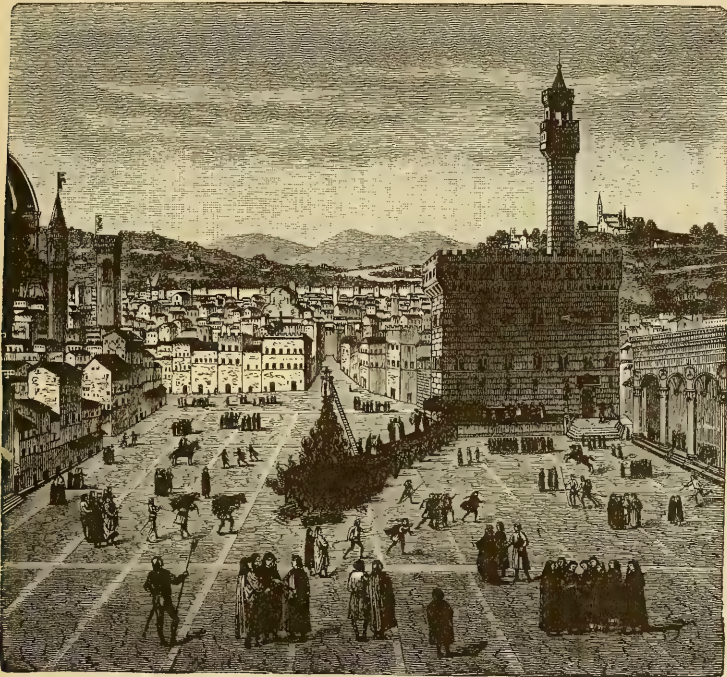
§ 287. The Counts of Savoy acquired nearly all of the western part of Upper Italy. This house had extended its little territory into a dukedom, by sagacity and courage, had pushed its way across the Alps to Geneva, and southward to Piedmont and Turin, including also Nice and other territories. But the Swiss league and the strong kingdom of France pushed forward their frontiers, and crowded Savoy gradually into a smaller territory. The Reformation made Geneva free, and in the wars between Francis I., and Charles V., the Duke of Savoy lost the best part of his inherited dominions. But his successors were able to obtain abundant compensation for these losses by the acquisition of Sardinia and Genoa, and the house of Savoy is now the reigning house of Italy.



SAVONAROLA.

*b. Middle and Lower Italy.*

§ 288. Pisa was the first commercial city of Tuscany. When this succumbed to the jealousy of the Genoese, Florence rose above the other cities and brought Pisa under its control. Florence was governed at first by the nobility, but these were so weakened by the party struggles of Guelphs and Ghibellines (Bianchi, Neri) that the guilds obtained control. These guilds embraced masters and craftsmen in all trades, and especially the workers in wool, but a democracy was hardly established in Florence before the rich merchants and the lower classes battled for the control of the city. In



DEATH OF SAVONAROLA.

this struggle a plutocracy sometimes, and sometimes the democratic guilds, were masters of the commonwealth. But in spite of them, Florence was noted for its love of liberty and of culture, and could be compared to ancient Athens. The rich  
*Cosmo,* family of the Medici finally succeeded in winning over both classes,  
 1428-1464. so that Cosmo de Medici, a man of noble mind and patriotic feeling, without rank and title ruled Florence with almost unlimited power. He received from his fellow citizens the title of "Father of his Country," for he made the city powerful

and prosperous by fortunate wars, and by his patronage of arts and sciences, and adorned it by the erection of splendid buildings.

§ 289. Cosmo's grandson, Lorenzo the Magnificent, made Florence the seat of every art and science and the nursing school of all Europe. Artist, poets, and writers adorned his court. Greek scholars escaping the sword of the Turks  
*Lorenzo,*  
 1472-1492. taught the Greek language and literature. Sculpture, painting, and music developed their finest qualities. After Lorenzo's death the folly of his son Piero, and the eloquence of the dominican monk Savonarola induced the Florentines to expel the Medicean family, and to restore the republic. For a while Savonarola was the actual ruler of the city, and the Florentines renounced "the vanities of the world." But the Pope excommunicated "the Prophet of Florence," the clergy rose against him; overthrown by his enemies, he was condemned to death as a seducer of the



MICHAEL ANGELO BUONAROTTI.

1498. people, and burned at the stake with two of his faithful companions. The Mediceans soon returned, and when they were expelled a second time, the Emperor Charles V., besieged the city, and having conquered it, established the cruel Alexander de Medici as duke

1530. over the humiliated republic. Alexander, after seven years of tyranny, was murdered by the people. But the Medicean house remained in possession of the government. Of the many artists who lived in Florence in this stormy period, Michael Angelo Buonarotti was the most famous. He was equally wonderful in architecture, sculpture and painting. The most famous author of the time was the statesman Machiavelli, author of the

"Prince," the "History of Florence" and "Discourses on Livy."

§ 290. The popes we have seen lived for twenty years in Avignon in southern France. During this period Rome was the scene of violence and of bloody family feuds between the two great families, Colonna and Orsini. This induced Cola Rienzi to attempt a restoration of the republican constitution, and thus to give the city peace and the greatness of ancient Rome. His fiery eloquence carried the Romans with  
 1347. him; they created the new republic, made their orator the tribune of the people and drove the nobility beyond the walls. But Rienzi's head was soon turned; vanity destroyed him. Oppressive taxes took away his popularity, and his enemies compelled him to fly. He returned after a few years, but only to be destroyed

1354. in a popular tumult. After the return of the popes to Rome, and the healing of the papal schism, some distinguished popes did their utmost to heal the wounds of the city, and of the Church. Among these we must mention especially



**Nicholas V.**, Nicholas V., the founder of the Vatican Library and Pius II., the brilliant and versatile writer, (*Aeneas Silvius*, § 266), both of whom were patrons of culture and of science. Alexander VI. (Borgia), on the other hand astonished all christendom with his godless conduct. The cruelties and crimes of his family, especially of Cæsar and Lucrezia Borgia, have been the themes of modern poetry and romance, and have reached posterity with strange embellishments. Cæsar Borgia died as a fugitive in Spain, and Lucrezia expiated the sins of her youth as Duchess of Ferrara. Alexander's successor **Julius II.**, possessed splendid ability, but his love of war was in strange contradiction with his spiritual dignity. He marched in person to the field, and extended the papal domain by the annexation of

**Leo X.**, Bologna, Ferrara and other cities. Leo X. the highly educated son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, united in the Vatican all the glory of art and culture. But he forgot the doctrine of the church and the gospel in his study of Greek and Roman literature, and by the sale of indulgences encouraged the pious credulity of the people in order to pay for the church of St. Peter, and to reward his artists with a liberal hand. The

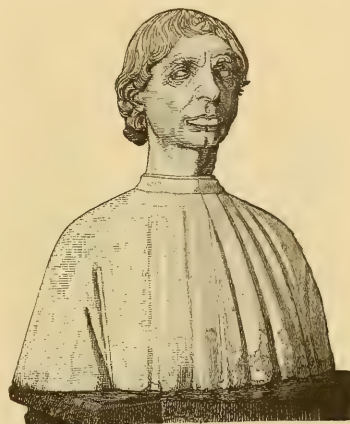
**Raphael**, the divine painter Raphael was the ornament of his court. Ferrara was ruled in the fifteenth century by the house of Este,—no less distinguished than the Medi-

**Ariosto**, cean for its culture and its patronage of art and science. **Tasso**, Ariosto the poet of "Orlando," and Tasso, the singer of "Jerusalem Delivered," dwelt at the court of Ferrara. Savonarola also was a native of the city.

§ 291. Naples, after the fall of the Hohenstaufens, was a papal fief, governed by the descendants of Charles of Anjou. They defended the cause of the Guelphs, as eagerly as the Aragonian kings of Sicily defended that of the Ghibellines. Joan I., and Joan II., queens of Naples, filled the kingdom with cruelty, war and confusion. The latter dying without children, named at first a Spanish, and then a French, prince as heir to the throne. This resulted in two parties, which

fought for the possession of Naples with great bitterness and varying success. The house of Aragon, Alfonso and his sons, obtained the upper hand. But Charles VIII. of France, invaded Italy to assert the claims of the House of Anjou. He marched through Upper and Middle Italy, took possession of

1495. Naples and drove his adversaries to Sicily. But a league between Milan, Venice and the Pope, compelled the French to withdraw, and the House of Aragon came once more to the throne. Louis XII., of France in alliance with the Spanish king Ferdinand, subjugated Naples some years later, but Ferdinand and Louis quarreled over the division of the spoil. The Spanish king by force and cunning,



MACHIAVELLI.

**1504.** managed to get Naples into his possession, and for two centuries, the kingdom of the two Sicilys was subject to the Spanish sceptre, and governed by a viceroy. Oppressive taxation and the destruction of civil rights led gradually to the poverty, and the political slavery, of the once prosperous country.

## 5. NEW BURGUNDY.

§ 292. Philip the Bold, received the dukedom of Burgundy from his father, King *Philip the Bold*, John of France. To this he united by marriage and inheritance, many other possessions, but especially the rich cities of Flanders. His son, **1363-1404.** John the Fearless, who was deeply implicated in the civil wars of France, and ruined thereby, extended his possessions into the Netherlands, and Philip the Good came to be ruler over Brabant, Holland, and other cities of the Low Country. Philip the Good was one of the mightiest and richest princes of his time, and the knights of the Low

Countries were distinguished for their splendor and their noble bearing. The rich commercial and industrial cities, Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, possessed great rights and privileges but a powerful militia. In Lyons, a University was erected in 1426, and four years later the order of the Golden Fleece was founded.

§ 293. Philip's son, Charles the Bold, *Charles the Bold*, extended the dukedom, and **1467-1477.** increased the glory of his court. He was a man of strength and bravery, but his greed of power and his passions made him headstrong, insolent, and reckless. He was eager to transform his dukedom into a kingdom, of which the Rhine should be the eastern frontier. But his undertakings were brought to nought by the cunning and faithless Louis XI., of France. For when Charles attacked the Duke of



BURGUNDIANS. (1470.)

Lorraine, Louis brought about an alliance between Lorraine and Switzerland. This alliance was joined by Alsace and by the cities of the upper Rhine. Charles thereupon marched a powerful army against the Swiss, but was so terribly defeated in the battle

**1476.** of Granson that the survivors fled in wild panic, while the artillery and the camp full of treasures fell into the hands of the enemy. The angry Duke, unable to endure this disgrace, attacked the Swiss once more, but the battle of Murten

**1476.** ended in the same way. The victors were enriched once more with enormous booty. The Duke of Lorraine received back the land which Charles had taken from him, and Berne took a portion of Savoy. This calamity shattered the mind of the bold Duke; he refused every offer of mediation, and marched a third time against his fearless foe. But in January, 1477, his army was defeated at Nancy, even more

**1477.** terribly than before, partly by the bravery of the Swiss, Alsations and

their allies, and partly by the treason of the leader of his Italian mercenaries. Charles himself was killed in the fight.

§ 294. Louis XI. now took possession of Burgundy as a fief of the French crown, and stretched out eager hands for the other possessions of the ruined duke. But at this crisis Maria, the daughter of Charles the Bold, married Maximilian of Austria, who conquered the French king, and compelled Louis to abandon his schemes. Maria

1470. died shortly after by a fall from her horse, whereupon the French king

resumed his plots, hoping to take the cities of the Low Countries from Maximilian, who

1482. was the guardian of his infant son, Philip of Burgundy. Louis stirred

up an insurrection in Ghent; Brabant wavered, and the guilds of Bruges openly

1488. rebelled. But Maximilian brought the Netherlands to acknowledge the rights of his ward. Philip, however, died early in Spain, at the court of his father-

1506. in-law. His son Charles V., the child of the Spanish Infanta Joan, inherited all the lands of his parents and his grand-parents. Born at Ghent, his heart

1506. clung to the rich and cultivated Netherlands, which he united into a great kingdom by the acquisition of Utrecht, and added to the German empire as the Circle of Burgundy.

## 6. SCANDINAVIA.

§ 295. The bold sea voyages and wanderings of the Normans and Danes, of the Vikings and Varings, gradually ceased. A few enterprising princes obtained the mastery over the other chieftains (Fylken kings, Folk-chiefs), and by uniting different tribes they founded kingdoms. Thus Harold Fairhair founded Norway; Gorm the

*Harold Fairhair,*

† 930. Old, founded Denmark; and the Ynglings founded Sweden. But the

*Gorm, the Old,*

and many of the discontented started off again to sea, seeking new

† 936. homes in other countries. Thus Rollo established himself and his

people in Normandy. This struggle of the kings against the discontented chiefs endured for several centuries, and prevented the thorough introduction of Christianity into the Scandinavian monarchies. Bishop Ansgar, the apostle of the North, had, it is true, introduced the gospel as early as the ninth century into the three countries, and certain kings like Harold Bluetooth in Denmark and Olaf Lapking in Sweden, had adopted this Christian teaching in the next century. Nevertheless the heathen

*Canute, the*

worship of Odin struggled a century longer against the progress of the

*Great,* new faith. Canute the Great, in Denmark, and Olaf the Saint, in

† 1035. Norway, gave the victory to the crucified Savior. But Sweden was

not completely won until the middle of the twelfth century, in the time of Eric the Saint. And the half-savage Finn did not yield until much later. But the Scandinavian kingdom was greatly benefited by this triumph of the church; the Benedictine monks planted the germs of intellectual culture, purified the manners of the people, and made them acquainted with the blessings of civilization. They introduced the art of writing, and supplanted the ancient runes by the Latin alphabet. They encouraged agriculture, introduced new cereals, erected mills, opened up mines, and accustomed the war-like people to the arts of peace, to industrial occupation, and the tilling of the soil. Christianity greatly modified the relations of master and slave, awakening the feeling of human dignity, and of all men's equality before God. Only the pagan



poetry and the heathen myths of the olden time were destroyed by the monks. The intellectual life of Iceland therefore perished. Gradually the clergy acquired great riches, privileges and estates, so that the hierarchy became the peers of the landed nobility. The peasant class however, continued in abject dependence, and the cities of Scandinavia had little or no importance.

§ 296. Denmark and Norway were united together until the close of the Middle Age. The kings of the eleventh and twelfth centuries were war-like and enterprising,

**Waldemar I.**, and greatly extended their dominion. Waldemar I. and his son,

**1157-1182.** Canute VI., guided by the sagacious and enterprising Arch-bishop

**Canute VI.**, Axel, extended their authority in every direction. And Waldemar

**1182-1202.** II., known as "the Conqueror" was singularly successful throughout

**Waldemar II.**, the Baltic Sea. He conquered all the Slavonic lands on the south and

**1202-1241.** east coast, from Holstein to Esthonia, and called himself king of the

Danes and Slavs, and lord of Nord Albingia (Schleswig—Holstein). But his cruelty

**1223.** provoked hatred and bitterness. He was consequently imprisoned by

the deeply injured Count Henry of Schwerin, for two years in his castle. Danen-

burg and all his vassal princes abandoned him, conquering their independence with

the sword. The proud structure of Waldemar fell to pieces. Hamburg and

Lübeck became free imperial cities; the peasant republic of Ditmarsen, reconquered

its independence; the German lands of the Baltic fell once more to the emperor.

After the death of Waldemar II., there ensued a period of great confusion, which the

nobility used skillfully to increase their privileges. The great landholders obtained

**Waldemar IV.**, exemption from taxes, and an individual judiciary for each estate.

**1240-1275.** Waldemar IV., subsequently re-established the royal authority with a

**1297.** strong hand, and by the *Union of Calmar*, his daughter Margarethe

united the three Scandinavian kingdoms into a single monarchy.

§ 297. Sweden, also, was the scene of continual struggles between the nobility

and the crown. Even the mighty house of the Folkungs, which acquired the throne

about the middle of the thirteenth century, finally succumbed to the destiny that as-

sailed every Swedish dynasty. Of the seven kings of this house, five were dethroned,

and died in a dungeon, or in exile. After the expulsion of the last Folkung, Magnus

**1263.** II. the Swedish crown passed to his nephew, Albert of Mecklenburg.

Albert, however, was conquered by the Danish Margarethe and deprived of the king-

dom, whereupon Sweden concluded with Denmark the Union of Calmar. This union

**1297.** was an injury to all three kingdoms, for Margarethe was followed

by weak kings. The power of the state in Denmark and Norway came more and

more into the hands of the landed nobility, while Sweden was treated by the Danish

kings almost like conquered territory.

Discord undermined the Union of Calmar, without destroying it. The Hanseatic

League, desirous to prevent a permanent union of the three kingdoms, carefully nour-

**Christian I.** ished this discord. With Christian I., the House of Oldenburg began

**1448-1481.** to rule in Denmark, and at the same time Sweden was governed by

the wise and brave Sten Sture, who restrained the violence of the nobility, in-

**Sten Sture.** creased the power of the cities and of the peasants, founded the

**1471-1504.** University of Upsala, and brought foreign scholars and printers into

the kingdom. He governed the realm with almost absolute power. But Sten Sture

the Younger, quarreled with the Archbishop of Upsála, who formed an alliance with  
**1520.** Christian II. of Denmark, by means of which Danish authority was re-established in Sweden. Sten Sture was defeated in battle and mortally wounded, whereupon Christian II. caused ninety-four of the most powerful nobles of Sweden to be beheaded in Stockholm. This cruelty so embittered the Swedes, that in a few years Denmark and Sweden were separated forever.

## 7. HUNGARY.

§ 298. Otto I. won a great victory at Lechfeld, near Augsburg, in the year 955, and thus put an end to the roving of the armed Magyars.

Not long after this their king, Geisa, was converted to Christianity, and  
**973.** permitted German missionaries to preach the gospel to his people. His son, Stephen the Saint, completed the work that Geisa had begun, and received

**Stephen the Saint.** from the Pope the royal dignity and a consecrated crown. He established bishoprics, and invited Benedictine monks into his kingdom.

**997-1038.** These soon acquired a great influence over his wild people, who had



LOUIS THE GREAT IN BATTLE. (A. de Neuville.)

hitherto resisted Christianity, partly because they hated the Germans, and partly because they lived a wild and licentious life. Stephen divided his kingdom into counties, and to the presidents of each he committed the administration of justice and of military affairs. He accustomed his people to civil order, and to agricultural and industrial life. But the war-like nature of the Magyars, and their dislike of Christian culture, which brought to them instead of the ancient freedom, serfdom, feudal slavery, and the hard toil of the fields, broke out shortly after Stephen's death in savage con-

**Geisa II.** flict and confusions. Geisa II. ruled during the twelfth century, and

**1131-1161.** in his reign Flemish and Low German emigrants settled in Transylvania. These (Saxons) have preserved down to our own day the manners, language, and institutions of their fathers. Through their industry and perseverance they have converted a desert into a garden, have created rich cities and prosperous villages, and have protected energetically their great privileges against all attacks. In the thir-

teenth century the Hungarian magnates extorted from king Andreas II. a charter called "the golden privilege." This guaranteed to the nobility and clergy most important rights, and laid the foundation for the free constitution of Hungary. A breach of this golden privilege by the king justified the nobility in armed resistance.

§ 299. Andreas III. was the last king of the House of Arpad. After his death Hungary became an elective monarchy. Louis the Great of Naples, of the reigning House of Anjou, was elected king, and under him Hungary reached the highest point of external power and inward prosperity. He obtained the crown of Poland, extended his frontiers to the lower Danube, and made the Venetians his tributaries. The hills about Tokay were planted



FINDING THE BODY OF LOUIS II. AT MOHACZ.

with vineyards, the statutes of the realm were greatly improved, citizens and peasants were guaranteed against the oppression and caprice of the nobility, and schools were established in the land. But after the death of Louis, violent quarrels ensued until finally the German emperor, Sigismund, obtained the Hungarian crown, and arranged for a representation of the estates of the realm. But his daughter's children were so weak that Hungary became a prey of the Ottoman Turks, until the heroic and skillful

*Matthias Corvinus.*

1458-1490.

Hunyad saved it from their hands. The grateful nation therefore gave the Hungarian crown to his powerful son, Matthias Corvinus, who reigned for thirty-two years, a worthy successor of Stephen the Saint



and Louis the Great. He held the Ottoman power in check, extended the frontiers toward Austria and Germany, and improved the military system. He founded a new university at Buda, established a library, and cared for the culture of the people by attracting to his kingdom scholars and artists, printers and architects, gardeners and artisans. But all these gains were lost by his successors. The Turks marched conquering beyond Belgrade; the territorial acquisitions in the west were abandoned, and the royal authority was so limited that not only taxation, but even peace and war, were made dependent upon the will of the national convention, and at last the magnates as-

1526. sumed the whole authority to themselves. King Louis II., was defeated at Mohacz. This brought on a struggle for the throne, which tore the land in



CASIMIR THE GREAT ANNOUNCING THE STATUTES OF WISLICA.

two, into East and West Hungary. The former fell to the Turks; the latter was united by Ferdinand of Austria to his other possessions, and finally all Hungary, both East and West, fell to the House of Hapsburg.

#### 8. POLAND.

§ 300. The plains along the Vistula, and the lands along the Oder and the Wartha, were the homes of Slavic tribes which were sometimes united together under one chieftain, and sometimes separated into several princedoms. After the conversion

966. of Duke Misco by German missionaries, Poland was looked upon as an imperial fief, but it was so loosely connected to the empire that under Frederick II. it

became altogether free. Manifold divisions so weakened the kingdom, that in the twelfth century, the Silesian princedoms on the Oder seceded, and were Germanized.

**Ladislaus IV.** But in the fourteenth century Poland became quite important, for **1305-1333.** Duke Ladislaus united the countries along the Wartha (Posen) with the countries on the Vistula. He called these territories the Kingdom of Great Poland; had himself crowned in Cracow and made the royal authority hereditary. His

**Casimir the Great.** son, Casimir the Great, conquered Galicia and Red Russia, established a university in Cracow, and gave his people better laws. He sought

**1333-1370.** earnestly to diminish the power of the nobility, and to favor the growth of cities, but a people so war-like and so destitute of culture made free cities impossible. Dominion in Poland was founded upon the sword, and remained in the hands of the nobility. Money and trade was in the hands of the Jews; the peasant was a serf, who led a wretched life, and in spite of the fertile fields on the Vistula, obtained a bare existence from his bitter toil.

§ 301. The male line of the Piasti became extinct with Casimir. The Poles **Louis the Great.** now offered their crown to his nephew, Louis the Great, of Hungary,

**1370-1382.** and from this time forward Poland was an elective monarchy. Nevertheless, the nation remained for two centuries true to the House of Jagellon, which,

**Jagellons.** however, was obliged to reward the nobility for their support with exemption from taxation and other great privileges. Jagello (Ladislaus), **1386-1572.** was the first king of this family. He added Lithuania to the Polish kingdom, after Christianity had been introduced there and the idols thrown down. The woolen garments that were distributed at baptism led thousands to the new faith. Casimir II,

**Casimir II.** was obliged in the wars he waged to purchase the help of his nobility **1447-1492.** by fresh concessions. In order that the nobility need not all appear in person at the diet, it was arranged that a certain number of representatives should

**1466.** be sent from each *voivodeschaft*, who, in conjunction with deputies from the clergy and councillors, appointed by the king, should constitute the diet of the realm. Without the consent of this diet, in which the commons were not at all represented, the king could make no change in the tax system, nor in the laws, nor do anything of importance, either in domestic administration or in war. The nobility were the only citizens of Poland, and the principle of their absolute equality among each other so increased their authority that frequent changes of monarchs, and wars of succession, undermined the royal power. The Teutonic order of knights in Prussia had carried on long and bloody wars with the Slavs, but had established a kingdom that reached from the Oder to the Gulf of Finland, a prosperous kingdom, with rich trading cities, with civil order, and with German habits. The long reign of the grand

**1351-1382.** master, Winrich of Kniprode, marks the golden age of the Teutonic order. But the ceaseless conflicts with the Poles and Lithuanians, and the quarrels of the knights among themselves, undermined their kingdom. In the battle of Tannen-

**1410.** berg, the grand master and most of his knights were slaughtered, and the order was compelled to yield to the authority of Poland. The intrepid grand master, Henry of Plauen, revived its strength, and wished to resume the struggle with the Poles, but he was deprived of his dignity, whereupon he entered into treasonable

**1414.** negotiations with the Poles which led to his imprisonment and death. In the disgraceful peace of Thorn the order was compelled to cede its finest possessions

**1466.** to Poland and the grand master obliged to remove his residence to Königsberg. In the century of the Reformation, the feudal authority of Poland was extended by King Sigismund over the dukedom of Prussia. Albrecht of Brandenburg, the grand master having become a Lutheran, established this dukedom as a *Sigismund I.* secular principality and gave Courland as a fief to Gotthard Kettler, **1506-1548.** grand master of the Order of the Sword, who had also become a Lutheran. But notwithstanding these extensions of the kingdom, the selfishness of the nobility made it impossible for Poland to efficiently resist the aggressions of the Russians and the Turks.

## 9. THE RUSSIAN KINGDOM.

§ 302. Vladimir the Great, great grandson of the Scandinavian chieftain Ruric, *Vladimir.* introduced Greek Christianity into his kingdom at the close of the *About 1000.* tenth century. His dominion extended at that time from the river Dnieper to lake Ladoga, and to the banks of the Dwina, and his residence was at Kieff. But his successor lost, by divisions and domestic wars, so much of unity and of strength, that the Poles and "Brothers of the Sword" conquered large territories **1224.** in the East, and finally the Moguls overran the whole land from the Dnieper to the Vistula, and compelled the Russians to pay them tribute. The great khan of the "Golden Horde," of Kaptshak, for two centuries exacted an oppressive **1242.** tribute from the Russian princes and their subjects. The princes of Moscow attempted in vain to break the heavy yoke, and not until the might of the Golden Horde was broken by their own dissensions, did Ivan the Great, of Moscow, succeed in liberating the country.

He then engaged in several successful wars, and extended his power in all directions. He first conquered the rich maritime city of Novgorod, which *Ivan (John) the Great.* belonged to the Hanseatic League, destroying its republican constitution, and transplanting a number of its chief citizens to other cities. *(Wasilewitch.)* **1462-1505.** Ivan was also law-giver, administrator, and the real founder of the Russian monarchy. He arranged the succession to the throne so as to prevent further division of the kingdom, and brought artisans and builders from Germany and Italy, in order to plant the beginnings of culture among his people. He built the Kremlin (Citadel), to protect his capital, Moscow. After the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, the Russian metropolitan (afterward patriarch) was chosen by the native bishops, and thus the independence of the church was obtained. Ivan's grandson *Ivan Wasilewitch II.* Ivan II., was the first to assume the title of CZAR, or "sole autocrat of all the Russias." Kasan and Astrakan were conquered by him; his dominion was extended to the Caucasus, and preparations were made for the discovery and the subjection of Siberia. By the formation of a troop of archers (Strelitzes), he began the creation of a standing army. With Ivan's son Feodor, the male line of the House of Ruric became extinct. The Cossacks were **1598.** also subdued by Ivan and his successors. These famous riders dwelt near the waterfalls of the Dnieper, along the Don, and among the foothills of the Caucasus. They led a life of wild independence under their self-elected chieftains, and fought continually with the Poles and the Moguls.



## 10. MOGULS AND TURKS.

§ 303. In the beginning of the 13th century, Zengis Khan, the chief of a  
*Zengis Khan.* Nomad horde, started out from the high tablelands of Asia, con-  
 † 1227. quering and to conquer. He crossed the Chinese wall, and subdued  
 the "Celestial Kingdom." Hindoostan, Persia, the vast empire of the Karismans,  
 were unable to withstand the strength of these wild herdsmen. Bochar, Samarcand,  
 and Balca, with all their treasures of art and science, were reduced to ashes.  
 These conquests were continued by the sons and grandsons of Zengis Khan.  
 Batu subdued the lands north of the Black Sea, made Russia tributary, set fire to



IVAN IN KASAN.

Cracow and devastated Poland and Hungary. The Moguls or Tartars then crossed the Oder. Breslau disappeared in flames. Duke Henry of Silesia, with his Christian  
 1241. comrades, were defeated at Liegnitz by these Asiatic heathen. The  
 people fled to the mountains; the West of Europe trembled; and Pope and Emperor  
 were too busy and bitter with their quarrels to save Christendom. Fortunately the  
 Moguls halted, frightened by the bravery of the European warriors, and by their  
 1258. strong castles. They turned their arms against the caliphate of Bag-  
 dad, which they brought to a bloody end. The last caliph perished with 200,000 Mos-  
 lems, and the Moguls pushed on to Syria. Here they destroyed Aleppo and Damas-  
 cus, and annihilated Christian and Arabic culture in the Holy Land. In a few gener-  
 ations the Mogul empire fell into several independent states, but for two centuries the



THE DEATH OF IVAN THE TERRIBLE. (Makowsky.)



Russians bore the yoke of the Golden Horde, and Hungary and Poland recovered but slowly from the awful visitation.

§ 304. The Moguls pushed the Ottoman Turks from their homes about the Caspian Sea, and drove them toward Asia Minor. These were warlike nomads of Mohammedan faith, who were urged by their priests to fight against the Christians. Othman pushed into Bithynia, chose Prusa for his residence, and maintained his conquests against the indolent Greeks and their western mercenaries. His successors selected the handsomest and strongest lads from among the conquered Christian peoples, and trained them up in the Mohammedan faith and to military life.

**Murad I.** Out of these they made a splendid infantry, called janissaries. **Murad (Amurath I.)** I. reduced all Asia Minor; then crossed into Europe, and subdued the country from the Hellespont to the Hæmus. **Adrianople was**



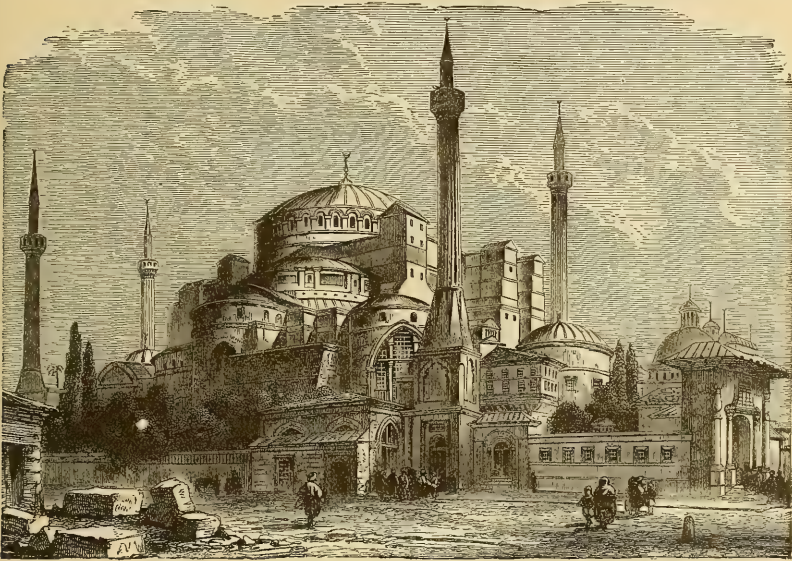
BATTLE OF NICOPOLIS.

taken, adorned with splendid mosques, and chosen to be the residence of Murad and Bajazet. the capital of his empire. His son, the energetic but violent Bajazet, continued the victorious course of his father so successfully that he was called "the Thunderbolt." He conquered Macedonia and Thessaly, and all Greece to the southern extremity of ancient Laconia. Then finally the West took up arms against the dreadful foe. Sigismund of Hungary, John of Burgundy, the flower of French knighthood, and of the German nobility, 100,000 strong, marched to the lower Danube. But at the battle of Nicopolis the Christians, in spite of their bravery,



**1396.** were utterly defeated. Many noblemen and knights fell into the hands of the Turks, from whom they were ransomed only by great sums. Ten thousand prisoners of lower rank were butchered by Bajazet.

§ 305. But an unexpected enemy now blocked the course of the powerful victor. The Mongolian ruler, Tamerlane, a descendant of Zengis Khan, who had determined to restore the fallen kingdom of his great ancestor. At the head of a horde of herds-men, he left his capital Samarcand, determined to subdue all the races from the Chinese wall to the Mediterranean Sea. He marched victoriously through India and Persia, destroyed Bagdad and Damascus, took Syria from the Mamelukes, and filled Asia Minor with cruelty and terror. Clouds of smoke, piles of ruins, and heaps of dead bodies marked his victorious track. Grinning skulls were his trophies. Bajazet



SANTA SOPHIA. (*Constantinople.*)

now raised the siege of Constantinople, and marched to meet the conqueror of the world. A fearful battle was fought at Angora, which resulted in the victory of the Moguls. Bajazet was taken prisoner and died the following year. But Tamerlane's world—empire fell to pieces as rapidly as it had been created.

§ 306. Murad II., the grandson of Bajazet, restored its former strength to the shattered empire, and reconquered the lost territories in Asia and Europe. He reduced the eastern empire till it comprised only Constantinople and a few adjacent districts, and made this tributary to his throne. Thereupon John Palæologus determined to obtain the help of western Europe, by a union of the eastern with the Romish church. To this end, he, with

the patriarch and many bishops, proceeded to Rome, and thence to the council of  
**1439.** Florence. After a long, violent discussion, an ambiguous treaty was agreed upon, which was however rejected by the zealots of both churches. This made the separation worse than before. Yet the Pope urged the Christian princes to a crusade against the Turks, and persuaded Hungary and Poland to attack the Ottoman empire. Ladislaus, king of Hungary and Poland, and the heroic Hunyad, of

**Hunniades.** Transylvania, crossed the Danube but were terribly defeated at the

**1444.** battle of Varna. The head of the young king was carried about on a pole by the exulting Turks.

§ 307. After the death of Murad II., his blood-thirsty son, Mohammed II., became sultan of the Ottoman empire. Determined to make Constantinople his capital, he besieged the city, and after fifty days of desperate

**1451-1451.** resistance, it was compelled to surrender. As the Turks stormed the walls, the last emperor, Constantine Palæologus, in whom survived the antique Roman heroism, the love for freedom, religion, and country, rushed to the thickest of the fight

**1453.** and fell gloriously in the defence of the imperial city. But the old seat of Byzantine splendor became the residence of the Sultan. The church of St. Sophia was transformed to a Mosque, and the crescent was planted upon the ruins of Christian civilization. The fall of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece, and by the subjection of the lands of the Danube. Pope Nicholas V., and Pope Pius II., tried in vain to arouse the slumbering religious energy of the West to new crusades. Only a few disordered



(SOLOMON I. THE SPLENDID.)

**1456.** companies marched under the Franciscan monk Capistrano, to the relief of the heroic Hunyad in Belgrade. But the West could not be inspired again to a general war. Yet in the mountains of Albania and Epirus, the heroic

**1467.** Scanderbeg maintained until his death, an independent dominion, and Hungary was saved by Hunyad's victory at Belgrade. But the battle of

**1526.** Mohacs, brought the half of Hungary along with Buda into the hands of the Turks, while Solomon the Magnificent, wrested the island of Rhodes

**Solomon the Splendid.** from the knights of St. John, and then marched to the gates of Vienna and carried terror into all Europe. Solomon gave to the

**1520-1566.** Turkish empire its greatest extent, and its utmost strength. His dominion included Syria and all of Asia to the Tigris, Egypt, and the north coast of Africa, with the pirate states of Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli. Solomon died at a great





MOHAMMED II. CROSSING THE DARDANELLES. (*H. Vogel.*)

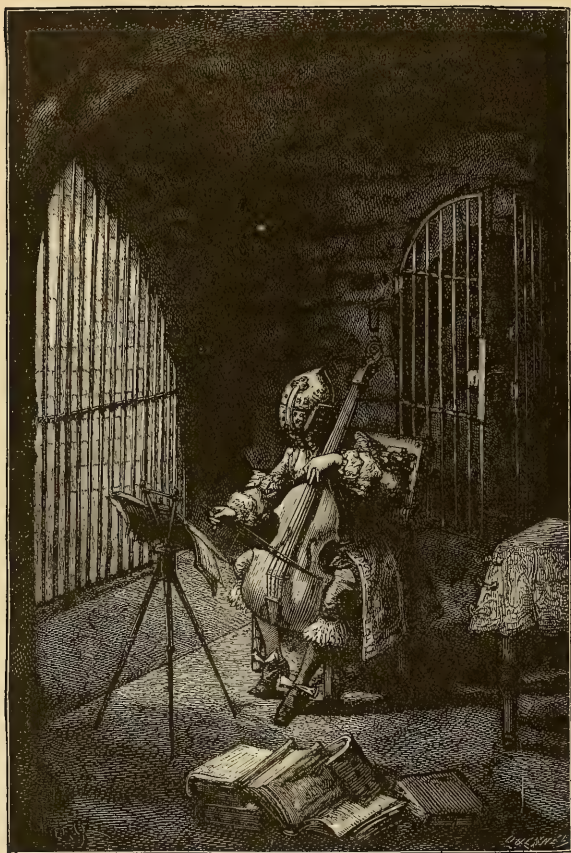


age, before Szigeth in Hungary, in the defence of which place the highminded Zriny lost his life. After the death of Solomon the power of the Turks declined; the janissaries grew indolent, judges and governors purchasable, and the provinces were depopulated by oppression. Barbarism soon covered the lands of the Eastern empire. The once rich cities and cultivated fields, bore witness everywhere of decay and wretchedness; for wherever the Turks planted their feet, they destroyed the germ of life.



SALLY OF COUNT ZRINY FROM SZIGETH.





( pp. 394. ) THE MAN WITH THE IRON MASK. (*Vierge.*)





## I. THE HERALDS OF THE MODERN EPOCH.

### 1. THE SEA ROUTE TO THE EAST INDIES AND THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

§ 308.



HE great inventions that came into use in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, wrought a complete change in the conditions of the Middle Age. An Italian from the neighborhood of Amalfi (Flavio Gioja) invented the compass by teaching how the magnetic needle with its peculiar property of pointing to the North might be used to determine the points of the horizon and this gave a tremendous impulse to the art of navigation. Gunpowder (according to some, the invention of Berthold Schwartz, a German monk; according to others borrowed from the Chinese and the Arabs,) began to be used in war about the middle of the fourteenth century and hastened the destruction of chivalry. But the invention richest in results, was the art of printing, due to John Guttenberg of Mainz. His assistants in the work were the goldsmith Fust or Faust, and the copyist, Peter Schöffer, who were the only ones to profit

by the invention. Schöffer introduced cast metal types instead of the carved wooden ones used by Guttenberg. At first the invention was kept secret, but it was soon carried by German craftsmen into all the lands of civilized Europe. Books which hitherto were accessible to the rich only, now came into the hands of the people, since the facility of reproducing literary works so greatly reduced their price.

§ 309. The use of the compass made it possible to extend navigation which, hitherto, had been chiefly along the coast only, and limited to the European seas. The Portuguese were the first to sail the ocean. The discovery of the islands Porto Santo and Madeira (soon famous for their wine and sugar cane) was followed by the

acquisition of the Azores, the discovery of the green promontory (Cape de Verd), and of the coast of upper Guinea, so rich in gold dust, ivory, and gum. The negroes seen here for the first time were captured and the slave-trade introduced. In the reign of King John II. lower Guinea (Congo) was discovered. Sailing from here, the daring Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern extremity of Africa, called by him the Cape  
 1486. of Storms, but soon changed by the hopeful king into the Cape of Good

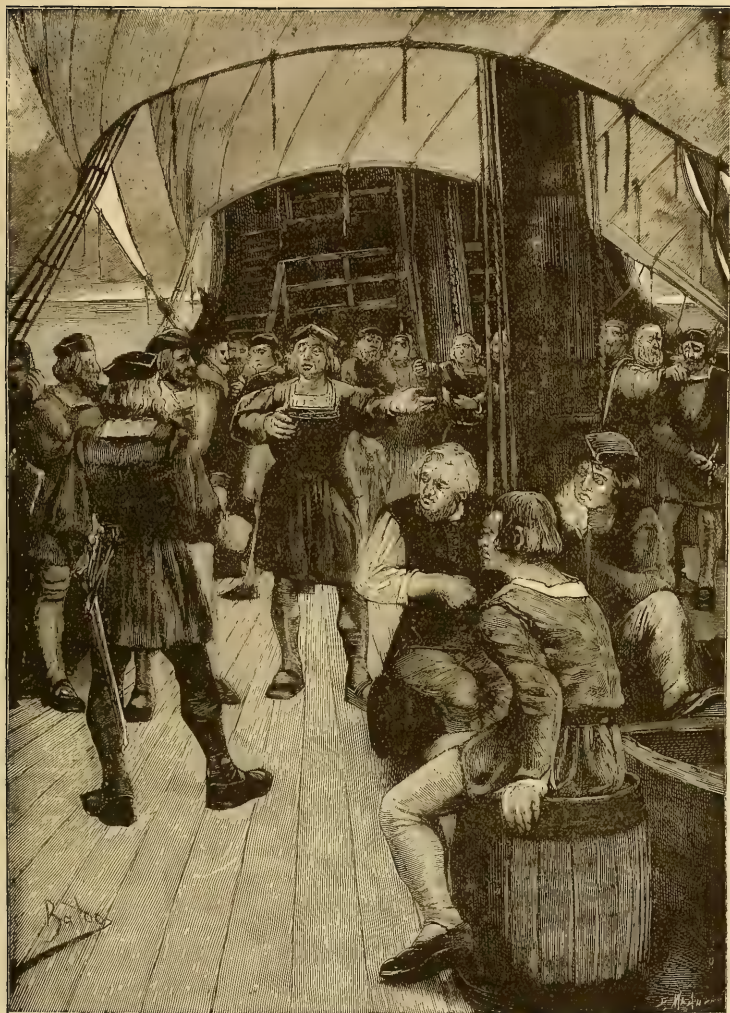


DESTRUCTION OF FIRST PRINTING PRESSES.

Hope. Twenty years later (America having been discovered meanwhile) the enterprising Vasco Da Gama discovered the sea route to the East Indies, by sailing from the  
 1498. East coast of Africa across the Indian Ocean to the Malabar coast and into the harbor of Caleutta.

Amid hard struggles with the natives, the Portuguese established here the first European trading-colonies, an undertaking that they executed with persistence and





COLUMBUS QUÉLLING THE MUTINY.

(pp. 397.)



courage. Vasco Da Gama and Cabral (who on their way had discovered Brazil and acquired it for Portugal) were followed by the brave Almeida. The latter compelled

1500. several Indian princes to pay tribute and to permit the building of warehouses in their chief cities. But on his return home, stopping to fetch water from South Africa, he and his brave companions were slain by Hottentots.

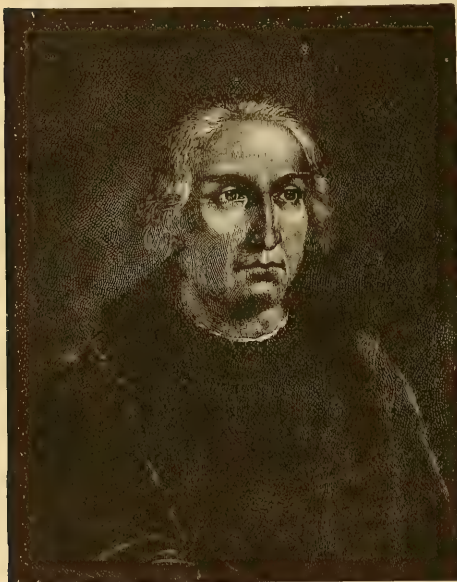
Albuquerque, as hero as wise as he was brave, now became Governor of India. He conquered Goa and made it the capital of the Indian colony; he besieged

1510. Malacca, the centre of the far Indian trade; subjugated the ruler of Ormuz in the Persian Gulf and made the name of the Portuguese king respected and

1515. feared. But king Emanuel rewarded his faithful servant with ingratitude and thereby broke the hero's

heart. In the following decades, the Portuguese established colonies and warehouses upon the island of Ceylon and the coast of Coromandel; subjugated Malacca and also the Sunda islands, famous for their spices. Lisbon thus became the centre of international trade. But selfishness and greed soon strangled the nobler impulses in the hearts of the Portuguese.

§ 310. The zeal for discovery, awakened by these Portuguese undertakings, led the bold Genoese Christopher Columbus, who had been a sailor from his youth, and had spent a great part of his life in Portugal, to the idea of finding another route to the famous Indies, by a western passage. He communicated his plan to King John II of Portugal, but could obtain no support. His plan was declared to be a dream. Nevertheless, behind his back, the attempt was made to



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

take advantage of it. Dissatisfied with this ignoble conduct, Columbus left Lisbon and turned to Spain, while his brother Bartholmew went to England to lay the enterprise before King Henry VII. But even in Spain, for a long time, Columbus found no hearing. But at last Isabella of Castile, rejoicing over the happy conquest of Granada, was moved to equip three ships and to entrust them to the daring navigator. The dignity of a great admiral and of viceroy over the lands and islands that he might discover, and the tenth part of the revenues derived from them, were promised to him for himself and his posterity as the reward of his success. On the third of August 1492, the little fleet sailed from the harbor of Palos on past the Canary

1492. Islands to the unknown West. The fear and anxiety of the crew



LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

increased with the distance, and changed finally from murmur to mutiny. The daring leader was threatened with death if he did not turn back, just as the discovery of the island Guanahani (afterwards called San Salvador) came to save him on the twelfth of October. It was a beautiful, fruitful, wooded land inhabited by copper-colored, naked savages who witnessed, without suspicion, the taking possession of their land in the name of the Spanish King and Queen, and who exchanged their best possessions for the tinsel and the toys that were offered them. But the expected treasures of gold, diamonds, and pearls were not to be found either here or in the larger islands Hayti and Cuba which were soon afterwards discovered. Yet the Spaniards were delighted with the luxurious plants and giant trees, and with the charming climate and splendid star-lit skies of these tropical lands. Columbus having founded a colony that he called Hispaniola, upon the island of Hayti, returned to Spain and after a dangerous voyage, astonished Europe with the story of the distant world of wonders, which, in consequence of his original error, received the name West Indies.

On his three subsequent voyages Columbus discovered Jamaica, Porto Rico and other islands, and finally the northeast coast of South America, not far from the mouth of the Orinoco. Yet the new continent bears the name, not of its discoverer, but of its first describer, the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci. Columbus, like many great men, did not enjoy the fruits of his achievement. The colony at Hispaniola was soon troubled by quarrels among the colonists and with the natives. And when Columbus punished the worst malcontents, and sent others back to Europe, they assailed him at the Spanish Court and painted his government in the darkest colors. King Ferdinand sent thereupon, a narrow-minded official Bobadilla to investigate affairs; he began his  
**1500.** work by deposing Columbus from his office and sending him in chains to Spain. Upon his arrival he was released from his fetters, but no more thought was



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.



HOUSE WHERE COLUMBUS DIED.

given to the original agreement. A new commander Ovando was appointed in his place. Kept away from Hispaniola (or San Domingo) Columbus now undertook a fourth  
**1502-1504.** voyage, hoping to find a western passage through Central America; but this proved a failure. He returned to Spain sick and worn out, and as Queen Isabella died about this time, the last years of his life were gloomy and cheerless. Deprived of his offices and his dignity, he died at Valladolid in his fifty-ninth year. His remains





were subsequently brought to Cuba. The chains in which he had been sent back to Spain were, at the command of his son Diego, buried with him.

§ 311. Columbus and his discoveries aroused a new heroic spirit. Every courageous mariner thirsted for discovery. The storm-beaten and enterprising Balboa, one of the

most imposing forms in this "Ocean Chivalry" crossed the mountain-isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific Ocean. The Portuguese Magellan sailed through the strait called after him into the Pacific Ocean, and reached, half starved, the East Indian Islands, being therefore the first to make the voyage around

the world. Both died a violent death. The former at the hands of his jealous successor, the other slain in battle by the savages of the Philippine Islands. Even the distant Labrador in the icy north was discovered by the Italians Cabot, father and son. And gradually the South Sea also swarmed with newly

discovered islands. But the discovery and conquest of Mexico by Cortez, was the most important of these events, for he discovered, not a land of savages, but a people dwelling in cities carrying on arts and industries, clothing

themselves in woollen stuffs, and governed by a constitutional King, a rich nobility and a powerful priesthood. With seven hundred daring Spaniards, Cortez subjugated a populous nation that lacked neither courage nor patriotism, imprisoned their proud and mighty King Montezuma in his own palace and conquered their capital Mexico, the Venice of the western world. The thundering cannon, the stately cavalry, the splendor of European warfare created in the natives the belief that the Spaniards were superior beings, whom they could not possibly resist with their weak powers and wretched weapons (iron was unknown to them), nevertheless the Mexicans fought heroically for their country and their freedom. They stoned to death their captured king, because he favored the Spaniards, and compelled the foreigners by their desperate uprising, in the famous "Night of Mourning" to retreat across the lake; and in the furious battle of Otumba they would have exterminated the Spaniards if Cortez had not, with daring presence



CABOT ON THE SHORES OF LABRADOR. (*E. Bayard.*)

of mind, hurled their leader to the ground, and thus precipitated a panic and a flight. Cortez however, carried his dangerous undertaking to a glorious conclusion. Within two years he conquered the land, stormed the capital in spite of the brave resistance of the new King Guatemozin and put an end to the cruel idolatry of Huitzilopochtli to whom thousands of human beings were annually sacrificed. But, in the establishment of a new order of things, he was baffled on all sides by his mistrustful government. Having discovered Honduras and California he returned to Spain in order to appeal in person to the court. He was received with high honors, presented with rich estates at the foot of the Cordilleras, raised to the rank of Marquis but no longer continued as governor of Mexico. When about to return to Mexico, he died in a village near Seville in 1547.

Pizarro and Almagro, men of warlike spirit and of great enterprise, but selfish, passionate and uncultured, conquered Peru, the land of

1520-1535.

tured, conquered Peru, the land of gold, with even slenderer resources. Under the rule of the Incas, the Peruvians had reached a peaceful prosperity, and a civilization free from the cruel superstition of the Mexicans, though without their manly courage. The Spaniards were helped in their



SEBASTIAN CABOT.

conquest by a quarrel over the succession between the royal brothers Atahmalpa and Huascar. Pizarro getting possession of the person of Atahmalpa cruelly and treacherously put him to death, in spite of his promise to set him at liberty for an enormous mass of gold; he then subjugated the beautiful land, so rich in gold and built the new

1535.

1540.

capital, Lima. Orellana, starting from Peru, sailed up the Amazon; encountering incredible dangers and hardships. Eldorado, the fabled land of gold, was however not found along its shores.

Pizarro and his brothers soon quarrelled with Almagro the discoverer of Chili. Almagro was conquered and beheaded, but revenged by his son, who with a band of conspirators waylaid and killed Francis Pizarro. The band being nearly ruined by this thirst for blood, the emperor, Charles V, sent a sagacious priest, Pedro de la

1546.

Gasca to be governor of Peru; the rebellious bands were soon put down, the last



AZTEC PRIESTS SACRIFICING A VICTIM.

Pizarro hung upon the gallows and the state reorganized.

§ 312. Admirable as the courage and energy might be, thus displayed by Europeans in the discovery of the new world, their cruel treatment of the natives was



reprehensible in the highest degree. Sword and shot and disease and slavery were combined by the Spaniards, for their extermination. The Indians were compelled to work the plantations, and the gold and silver mines of the conquerors, and to bear burdens too heavy for their weak bodies.

The well-meaning missionaries, who had been sent out to convert the Aborigines, sought in vain to inculcate kindness and humanity; avarice hardened the hearts of the Europeans and made them deaf to the teachings of the gospel. And when the noble Las Casas, in order to ameliorate the lot of the West Indians, suggested the use of Negroes for the harder labor, he inaugurated the cruel slave-trade without benefiting the copper-colored races.

The discovery of the New World and the introduction of foreign products from



AN INCA EMPEROR.

America and the Orient, produced great changes in the lives and manners of the Europeans. Coffee, sugar, potatoes have become necessities of life. Dye-stuffs, cotton, and the finer kinds of wood are indispensable to modern industry. The increase of the noble metals has exercised a powerful influence upon prices and upon commercial relations. Science began to take new form, especially in all that relates to our knowledge of the earth. Commerce also took a new direction; the Italian sea-ports were abandoned, while Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands and England, in a word the Atlantic coast states became the centre of international trade and the seats of wealth. Portu-

gal and Spain did not, however, long enjoy their prosperity; for they shackled commerce and excluded other nations from their colonies.

## 2. THE RENASCENCE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES.

§ 313. Italy in the fifteenth century was the brain of Europe; many splendid courts and rich cities vied with each as patrons of the arts and sciences. The Mediceans in Florence (§ § 288, 289) and several of the popes founded libraries and academies and collected costly manuscripts; the art of printing, which soon appeared in every city, contributed powerfully to the culture of the people. Hitherto Latin literature had been pursued exclusively; but the taking of Constantinople by the

1453.

Turks, drove the Greek scholars to Italy, and the study of their language soon became the fashion. Dictionaries and grammars, commentaries and translations made the ancient writers easily intelligible. To write classical Latin was the mark of the educated. New schools were founded, at first in Italy, then in the other lands of Europe. Universities, gymnasia and seminaries of all sorts, sprang up in Germany, and scholars like John Reuchlin († 1522), Erasmus of Rotterdam († 1536), and Ulric Von Hutten († 1523), vied with the great Italians in their knowledge of Greek and Latin literature and philosophy. Latin was at this time the language of scholars, and

a lively interchange of letters took the place of the modern newspaper. The conflict of the old and the new learning culminated in the struggle of Reuchlin with the Dominicans of Cologne. The latter were determined to burn up all Hebrew books written since the birth of Jesus. Reuchlin, to whom the matter was referred by the Chancellor of the empire, Archbishop Albert of Mayence, declared the purpose of the Dominicans injurious to science. This so enraged them that they accused Reuchlin of heresy,

1514. burned one of his writings publicly, and condemned the study of Greek and Hebrew. A war of ink-horns ensued. The friends of the new learning stood by Reuchlin and humanism won a complete victory. The Pope finally forbade the conflict. Ulric Von Hutten and Crotus Rubianus contributed to this controversy the famous *EPISTOLÆ VIRORUM OBSCURORUM*. (Letters from the Dark.). In these letters, the conduct and ignorance of cloister life were satirized with exact but comical fidelity in the barbarous latin of the Monks. Hutten died in exile near Zurich. Erasmus continued for thirteen years longer to oppose scholasticism and monasticism with all the weapons of humor and intelligence. The "Praise of Fools" and his edition of the Greek Testament are his most important works. Allied at the beginning with Hutten and Luther, he separated from them in later years and opposed them in violent tracts. His career in England, especially his connection with Colet and More, and the new learning at Oxford, as well as his relations to the humanists and Luther, make him a figure of unusual moment.



ITALIAN SCHOLARS AND GERMAN WOMEN.

## II. THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION.

### 1. THE GERMAN REFORMATION.

§ 314.

*a. Martin Luther.*



ET the Church be reformed in head and members!" was the cry of Europe in the fifteenth century. But the great church councils had met and accomplished nothing. The Church had refused the desired self-regeneration, and the voice of the people had received but little attention. The papal court was in the receipt of great revenues from the churches of other countries, the inferior clergy were indolent, immoral, ignorant, taking little or no part in the new learning and the progress of the age. The superior clergy led a worldly life, taking pleasure in sensual enjoyment and princely extravagance, frequently forgetting the doctrine of the Church in the art and literature and philosophy of pagan antiquity. A great dis-

content prevailed with the Church, and the hierarchy and the unchristian life of several popes greatly increased this dissatisfaction. It needed only an impulse to unite all the elements opposed to the papacy into a powerful opposition. This impulse was given by Pope Leo X. To defray the expense of building St. Peter's, and other architectural works, he gave Archbishop Albert of Mayence, and of Magdeburg, the privilege of selling an indulgence, in which the purchaser was guaranteed escape from purgatorial punishment. Albert obtained the half of this money, and made use in Saxony of the Dominican monk Tetzel, who went about his work so heedlessly, that Dr. Martin Luther, an Augustinian monk, seeing that true penitence and the authority of the

1517. confessional were brought into disrepute, felt moved to nail ninety-five theses to the church door at Wittenberg, on the evening of All-saints Day, 1517. He offered at the same time to defend these theses against all comers. He denied in them that an indulgence had any efficacy without repentance, and denied also the right of even the Pope to grant absolution to any who were not truly sorry for their sins.



TRAFFIC IN INDULGENCES.  
*Part of Rare Engraving by Hans Holbein.*

The indulgence might free the purchaser from ecclesiastical punishment, but it could not acquire for him the grace of God. He pointed out the difference between false penitence and true penitence; between external opinion and inward faith; between the dead holiness of works, and true Christian righteousness.

§ 315. Martin Luther was born on the 10th of November, 1483. His father, an honest miner in Möhra, desired him to study law, and he had spent four years in Erfurt to that end. But anxiety for the salvation of his soul drove him to a cloister. He spent a last evening with his friends, in song and music and wine, and then departed for a quiet cell in the Augustinian monastery. He performed all the duties and drudgeries of a mendicant monk, but obtained no relief for his melancholy and his distress of soul. At last he reached the conviction that man can not be saved by works, but only through faith in the mercy of God, through Jesus Christ, and this brought peace to his heart. Staupitz, his vicar-general, recommended him for Wittenberg in 1508. Frederick the Wise, had just established a new university in that town, and there Luther began his activity as teacher, preacher, and a curate of souls.

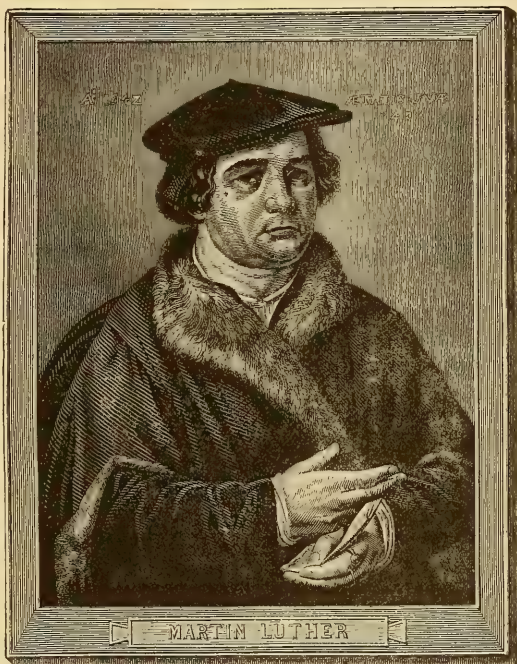
§ 316. The deep religious earnestness that was unmistakable in Luther's theses, found a response in all Germany. But Luther was summoned to defend himself in Rome. The Elector of Saxony interfered however, and the papal nuncio Cajetan appointed a hearing in Augsburg. Luther, provided with a safe conduct, proceeded thither. The proud Dominican thought it an easy



matter to overcome the humble monk, with his theological learning ; but, after a short encounter, Cajetan commanded him to depart, and not to appear again before him till he retracted. Appealing to the Pope, Luther fled with great haste by night from Augsburg. Cajetan demanded of the Elector to deliver the bold preacher to Rome, or at least to expel him from his dominion. Frederick answered that Luther's request for an impartial court seemed to him quite just. This protection of the Elector was the more important for Luther, because the Elector was at that time the

*January, 1519.* ruler of the empire, as the death of the emperor Maximilian, required a new election. And, as the Pope desired to influence this election, he was anxious not to lose the support of Frederick. He therefore sent his chamberlain Miltitz, an adroit Saxon nobleman, to make his peace with Frederick, and at the same time to withhold Luther from further steps against the church. Luther promised to abandon the matter if the sale of indulgences was stopped, and if silence was imposed upon his enemies. To prove his earnestness he urged everyone in writing to obedience and reverence toward the Church and its head, and assured the Pope, in all humility, that it had never been his intention to attack the prerogatives of the Roman see.

§ 317. But the expected reconciliation did not take place. John Eck, a professor in Ingolstadt, a scholar and a skillful disputant, challenged Carlstadt and Luther to a disputation in Leipzig. In



*June, 1519.* the heat of the debate, Luther maintained that the Roman bishop had become head of the Church, not by command of Jesus himself, but by later human institution, and expressed doubts of the infallibility of the pope and of councils. Astonished at this boldness, Eck immediately published a learned book, in which he tried to prove that the papacy had been established by Christ, in the person of Simon Peter, and was consequently a divine arrangement. With this book Eck hastened to Rome, and obtained a bull, in which a number of Luther's propositions were condemned as

**June, 16, 1520.** heretical, his writings ordered to be burnt, and he himself placed under excommunication, if he did not retract within sixty days. This condemnation of Luther, upon the charge of an antagonist, without waiting for his defence, was disapproved in all Germany. Eck published the bull of excommunication, but Luther's writings were burned only in Cologne, Mayence, and Lyons. In Saxony the bull had no effect. Luther now replied with his famous writings, "An Address to the Christian Nobility of Germany," and the "Babylonian Captivity and Christian Freedom." In these he laid bare, without mercy, the abuses and wrong doings of the existing church, and demanded immediate reform. The enthusiasm with which these writings were received, and the cry for freedom which re-echoed throughout Germany, emboldened Luther to a step which separated him from the Roman Church by an impassable



POPE IN ORNATE AND HOUSE COSTUME, AND  
PAPAL GUARD.

gulf. He marched with the students of Wittenberg to the Elster gate of the city, **December 10,** and there threw the bull **1520.** of excommunication and a copy of the canon law into the flames.

§ 318. Meanwhile Charles V., grandson of Maximilian, king of Spain and Burgundy, had been chosen German emperor, and his first task was the settlement of these ecclesiastical difficulties. He appointed a diet at Worms, gave Luther a safe conduct, and permitted him to appear before the assembled princes and representatives of the imperial cities. Luther, remembering the fate of Huss, went not without trembling, yet full of confidence in God, and found himself surrounded by a thronging multitude. The Em-

**April, 1521.** peror and the papal ambassador (Alexander), many princes,

lords, prelates, and representatives of the great cities were present, when the embarrassed monk was introduced. Required to retract, he hesitated and asked for time. He was granted till the following day. The second time he appeared resolute and strong. He acknowledged himself openly to be the author of the writings that were laid before him, and replied to their demands with the following words; "As long as I am not convinced from the Holy Scriptures that I am in error, I can and will not retract, for my conscience is a prisoner to the word of God," and concluded with the exclamation, "Here I stand; I can do no otherwise; God help me. Amen." All attempts to bring him to another declaration failed, but no violence was attempted. Luther started away unassailed; many princes and members of the diet did the same. And not until their departure was the ban proclaimed against Luther and his adher-

**May 26, 1521.** ents, and his writings condemned to the flames. Charles V., now closely allied to the Pope, was determined to root out this heresy, but Luther was already in safety, for the Elector Frederick had ordered him to be seized and to be carried off to the Wartburg, where he lived as "the Knight George." His friends mourned him as

dead until some bold writings and an angry pamphlet against Albert of Mayence, who was once more selling indulgences, convinced them that he was more alive than ever. Albert reflected and stopped the sale.

§ 319. While Luther was at the Wartburg, he led a life of activity, but of illness and of melancholy. During his absence from Wittenberg, a new movement took place, which greatly disturbed the pious and pacific Elector. Dr. Carlstadt abolished the mass, gave the cup to the laity, and attacked images and ceremonies. He was soon joined by the so-called

"Prophets of Zwickau." These were uneducated men, ruled by their fanatical feelings, who attacked the baptism of children, because they said a sacrament without faith had no efficacy, and insisted upon the rebaptism of adults (Ana-baptists). These prophets declared that they had communications direct from God. In some of the churches the images and the priestly robes were destroyed. Many monks abandoned the cloisters, and confusion took possession of the people. Luther could remain no longer at the Wartburg; he hastened to Wit-

tenberg, March, 1522. He preached every day for a week against these innovations, repulsed the enthusiasts of Zwickau, and pacified the people for a quiet development of the Reformation. Wittenberg now

became the centre of German culture. Philip Melanchthon, a young man of twenty years, who had already penetrated to the depths of knowledge, came to

**Melanchthon.** Luther's assistance and brought the University of Wittenberg to great renown. Luther was violent and destructive, but Melanchthon was mild and conciliatory. While the latter and other great scholars sought to give a scientific basis to the new doctrine, Luther by his German writings and hymns, and especially by his translation of the Bible, won the hearts of the people. This was begun at the Wartburg and completed at Wittenberg. It was discussed thoroughly



PHILIP MELANCHTHON. (After Albrecht Dürer.)



in the circle of his friends, and was published entire in the year 1534. It is a masterpiece of German language and of German genius.

§ 320. The new doctrine soon crossed the frontiers of Saxony. The Landgrave Philip, of Hesse, became an earnest supporter of the gospel; but the citizens of the imperial cities were after all the most devoted friends of reform. The assembled congregations often started a psalm, or a new church hymn, of their own accord, and thus led to the postponement of the mass. When the churches were refused the people, they worshipped in the open air, in the fields, in the meadows, and when religious motives were not powerful enough, the prospect of church estates and worldly advantages kindled a fresh zeal. All Germany appeared to be swept along in the movement, and a national church, independent of Rome, seemed to be inevitable. But the Pope won

1524, over Ferdinand of Austria,

the Dukes of Bavaria, and several South German bishops to the league of Regensburg, in which they promised each other mutual support and the expulsion of the Wittenberg doctrines from their dominions. The seed of dissension was strewn in Germany at the very moment in which the noblest minds of the nation were striving for freedom and independence.

*b. The Peasant War. (1525.)*

§ 321. This cry for freedom filled the peasants with the hope of lightening their burdens by their own strength, since Christ had made them free by his precious blood. A peasant war ensued. In the beginning, patriotic men like Sickingen and Hutten seemed willing to place themselves at the head of the movement, and to conquer the transformation of Germany in state and

1522. church; but Sickingen's early

death, at the siege of his castle Landstuhl, and Hutten's flight, delayed the uprising and took away from it definite plan and aim. The wild speeches of the ana-baptist, Thomas Münzer, who demanded the abolition of all spiritual and temporal power, and the establishment of a divine kingdom in which all men should be equal in rank and in wealth, heated the brains of the excited peasants. In a short time the whole population about Lake Constance assembled under Hans Müller, of Bulgenbach, a former soldier. Clad in a red mantle, and wearing a red cap, he marched with his adherents from village to village, while the standards of rebellion fluttered from the wagon that drove behind him. The peasants had "twelve articles" which they meant to establish at the point of the sword. They demanded freedom to hunt and to fish, and to cut wood in the forests, the abolition of serfdom, of feudal service and of the tithes, the right to choose their own clergy, and the free preaching of the gospel. The peasants along the Neckar, and in Franconia soon followed, under the command of George



GERMAN CITIZENS' DRESS. (*Early 16th Century.*)



THE REVOLT OF THE PEASANTS. (*L. Herterich.*)



Metzler. They compelled the nobility to accept the twelve articles, and to give their subjects the demanded rights. Whoever ventured to oppose them died a swift, painful death. They marched through the land, setting fire to barns and buildings, destroying cloisters and castles, and visiting their oppressors and opposers with a bloody revenge. Under the lead of brave knights like Götz of Berlichingen, (Götz, of the iron hand), they pushed into Wurtzburg, while others devastated Baden. The insurrection then spread into Swabia, Alsace, and the regions of the Rhine. Ecclesiastical and secular princes were panic-stricken, and conceded the demands of the angry peasants. But in Thuringia and the Harz mountains the uprising had a more relig-

*May, 1525.* ious character. Thomas Müntzer had acquired the authority and the reputation of a prophet. He girded himself with the sword of Gideon and sought to found a kingdom of God, all of whose members should be free and equal. Inflamed by his preaching, the people destroyed, in their rage, castles and cloisters, and the monuments of the olden times.

§ 322. Luther in the beginning of the uprising counseled peace. He reminded the princes and landowners of their cruelty and severity, and dissuaded the peasants from the insurrection. But as the danger increased, as the prophets of murder and the spirits of plunder broke loose in the land, he published a violent pamphlet against the "plundering and murdering peasants," in which he called upon the magistrates to smite them with the sword, and to show no mercy. The elector, John of Saxony, the landgrave, Philip of Hesse, and other princes, now broke into Thuringia, and easily overcame Thomas Müntzer and his poorly armed peasants. A scaffold was erected at Mühlhausen, upon which the prophets came to a horrible death. In Swabia peace was restored by Truchsess von Waldburg, who then marched against the peasants of Franconia; these were soon put down. The prisoners were butchered, and the citizens of the Franconian cities who had supported them were severely punished. It was everywhere the same. In most regions the peasants were compelled to carry all the former burdens, and the nobility in their triumph, declared "Our fathers have chastised you with rods, but we will chastise you with scorpions."

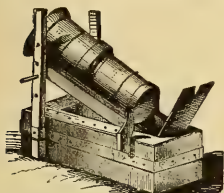
*c. The Protest and Confession of Augsburg. (1529-1530.)*

§ 323. The new church grew stronger in spite of conflict, and Luther's energy increased with opposition. In 1524 he left the Augustinian cloister, and in the following year he married Catherine von Bora, a former nun. In the circle of his faithful friends he now began to lead a happy family life. His strength and his cheerful confidence in God, were not broken, either by repeated attacks of illness, or by poverty. He wrote two catechisms, in which he laid the foundation for a uniform creed and for better religious instruction. Melancthon was equally active. By the appointment of the Elector, he visited the churches of all Saxony. The Reformation was making such progress that Catholic princes, spiritual and temporal, became alarmed. They therefore resolved at the diet of Speyer, that no further innovations should be permitted, that the new doctrine should not be extended, and that the mass should be in no wise hindered. This action of the diet led to the famous protest of many princes and imperial cities; and from this protest all who reject the authority of the pope, and the maxims of the Roman Catholic Church are called Protestants. The Emperor was in Italy when the protest was laid before him; he would not receive it. The protest-



ing princes and cities would then have formed a league of defence, if Luther and the evangelical theologian had not rejected every defence of the divine word by carnal weapons.

§ 324. In the following summer the emperor convened the splendid Diet of **June 25, 1530.** Augsburg. The protesting princes and cities now presented their Confession, composed by Melancthon and approved by Luther. In this they sought to prove that they were not establishing any new church, but purifying and restoring the old one. This Confession composed with great clearness and moderation, embraces in its first sections the doctrines of evangelical faith, and in the second section it enumerates the abuses against which the reformers fought. After the Confession had been read, the assembly resolved to justify the doctrines and usages of the existing church by a confutation, and then to attempt a reconciliation by a conference of the moderate men of both parties. But the confutation composed by Eck



SWISS MOUNTAIN CANNON.  
(XIVth Century.)

and others made but little impression, and the conference led to no result, because both the Pope and Luther were opposed to any further concessions. The unity of the church could now be conquered only by the sword. The Protestant princes, and the important cities, rejected the order of the diet which forbade the spread of their teaching, and denominated them a sect; they then left the diet. After their departure it was resolved to root up the new sect, and to put under the ban all the adherents of it who did not, within a given time, abandon their innovations. But this edict did not frighten the princes, or the Wittenberg reformer. The princes thought more of their faith than of the Emperor's favor, and Luther in his confidence composed the immortal hymn, "Our God is a strong castle."

§ 325. The reformed church of Germany was, unfortunately, soon divided into the Lutheran and the Zwinglian. Ulrich Zwingli of Toggenburg, a classically educated and liberal clergyman of republican principles, was a priest of Zurich, when the Franciscan

**Zwingli,**

**1484-1531.**

monk, Samson, appeared there to sell indulgences. Zwingli opposed with all his might this and other abuses of the Church, and attacked with great energy the Swiss custom of serving as hireling soldiers in foreign wars. He was a practical, sensible man, more bent upon the improvement of morality than upon purity of doctrine and of faith. He went very thoroughly to work, seeking to re-establish the simple life of primitive Christianity. He was bravely supported by the council of Zurich, and with their help he transformed the teaching and the usages of the Church: he removed all images, crosses, altars and organs, and so ordered the administration of the Lord's Supper, that it resembled the lovefeast of the early Church, and became simply a token of remembrance and of mutual love in Jesus Christ. This entangled Zwingli in a fatal conflict with Luther. The German reformer rejected Zwingli's interpretation of "this is my body" into "this betokens my body," and maintained that Christ was bodily present in the sacrament, although the bread and wine were not trans-substantiated. Philip of Hesse convened a conference at Marburg, and tried in vain to

**1529.**

effect a reconciliation. Luther declared that Zwingli's opinion was a denial of Christ, and with the words, "You have another spirit in you," refused the hand that Zwingli offered him with tears. Luther also advised a separation of his

adherents from the South German cities, which had adopted Zwingli's views. On this account, the latter presented a separate creed of their own, to the Diet of Augsburg.

§ 326. Zwingli's teachings produced a great excitement in Switzerland. In Zurich, Basel, Berne and Schaffhausen, and in the valley of the Rhine, the Church was reformed according to Zwingli's principles. In St. Gall, Glarus and other cantons, the parties were equally divided. But in the forest cantons the ancient usages prevailed. The monks and clergy were very powerful among the shepherds and peasants of Lake Luzerne, and moreover the hireling Swiss soldiers came principally from this region. These cantons made an alliance with Austria, and forcibly put down every reform.



DEATH OF ZWINGLI. (*Weekener.*)

Berne and Zurich, on the other hand, urged the reformation with equal violence. A conflict was inevitable; especially as Zwingli was determined upon such political changes as would make Berne and Zurich supreme in Switzerland. The clergy of both parties insulted each other with impunity; this increased the excitement, and provoked tumults. Zurich and Berne now blocked the highways and prevented the movement of goods and provisions; this excited the rage of Luzerne, and the forest cantons; they armed themselves secretly and invaded Zurich. The latter, abandoned by the people of Berne, marched their little army of two thousand men, against an enemy four times as strong, and were defeated utterly in the battle of Cappel. Zwingli, 1531, who marched to the field as chaplain, fell beside the banner of the city,

and with him fell the best men of the reform. His body was mutilated by the angry foe, then burned and the ashes of it strewn to the winds. As a result the old church was restored in many places that had favored the new doctrines, and Switzerland was divided about religion for all future time.

## 2. THE WARS OF THE HAPSBURGS AGAINST FRANCE.

§ 327. Karl V. ruled an empire the like of which had not existed since the days of Karl the Great (Charlemagne). Before he was of age he was  
*Charles V.,* lord of the wealthy Netherlands, which were his paternal inheritance;  
*1519-1556.* as a young man he succeeded to the Spanish monarchy, upon the death  
 † 1558.



CHARLES V.

of his grandfather, Ferdinand the Catholic, and with these he obtained Naples and Sicily, and the newly-discovered lands in America; in his mature manhood he inherited the Austrian estates, and was elected the successor of his grandfather Maximilian, as German emperor. He could say with truth, that "the sun never set in his dominion." He was a man of singular intelligence, and unwearying activity; great as an adminis-



trator and a brave leader of armies. His adversary and rival was King Francis the First, of France;—a handsome and powerful man renowned for his love of art and science, for chivalrous bearing and for his courage; famous also for his despotic government, his love of pleasure, and his fondness for beautiful women. Francis and Charles hated each other with deadly jealousy. Each wished to be the first prince of Europe, and each eagerly sought the imperial crown. Charles was the victor, and Francis became his determined foe, seeking by



every means to weaken his authority. This produced four wars, of which Milan was the chief occasion. The battle of Marignano threw this beautiful dukedom into the hands of the French. But Charles claimed it as an imperial fief, and marched a great army into Italy. At that time wars were conducted with hiring soldiers and no nation could stand up against the Swiss and Germans. Their muskets



THE BATTLE OF PAVIA.

(pp. 417.)

made short work of the knightly warfare of the Middle Age, and their cannon broke

1521. the castles into ruins. The French were conquered. They lost Milan

1522. and Genoa, and retreated across the Alps. Bayard, "the knight without fear and without stain," was one of the sacrifices of this campaign. The Constable Bourbon, the richest and mightiest nobleman in France, in order to revenge himself for the insults and injuries which he had received from Francis, entered the

1524. service of the Emperor and now led the imperial army into southern France. But the brave citizens of Marseilles compelled it to withdraw.

§ 328. Francis I., smarting from his defeat, and eager to regain his lost territory, placed himself at the head of a well equipped army and marched into Italy. But he was held back at Pavia, during which time the Constable Bourbon obtained fresh

troops from Germany and united with the Spanish general, Pescara. But want of money and provisions brought the allied army into great distress, while the camp of the French overflowed with abundance. Bourbon and Frundsberg thereupon excited their soldiers to storm the French camp. Surprising them at night the battle

1525. of Pavia took place in which Francis was defeated and taken prisoner. Ten thousand soldiers were killed or drowned; Francis was kept at Madrid for a year, and compelled to sign a peace in which he promised to renounce

1526. his claims to Milan, and to give up the duchy of Burgundy. But the French king had hardly reached home when the Pope released him from his oath, and formed the holy league, in order to free Italy from Spanish rule. This league consisted of the Pope, the King of England, the King of France, and a few Italian princes. The rage of war once



THE CHEVALIER BAYARD.

more broke loose in Italy, and the recruiting drum went beating through every German town. As it was a fight against the Pope, the Lutherans enlisted in throngs, so that Frundsberg soon led a powerful army across the Alps, and united once more with the Constable Bourbon. But money was too scanty to satisfy the troops. The soldiers mutinied and Frundsberg died of apoplexy. The troops demanded to be led to Rome: Bourbon yielded. On the sixth of May, 1527, the Spanish and German soldiers

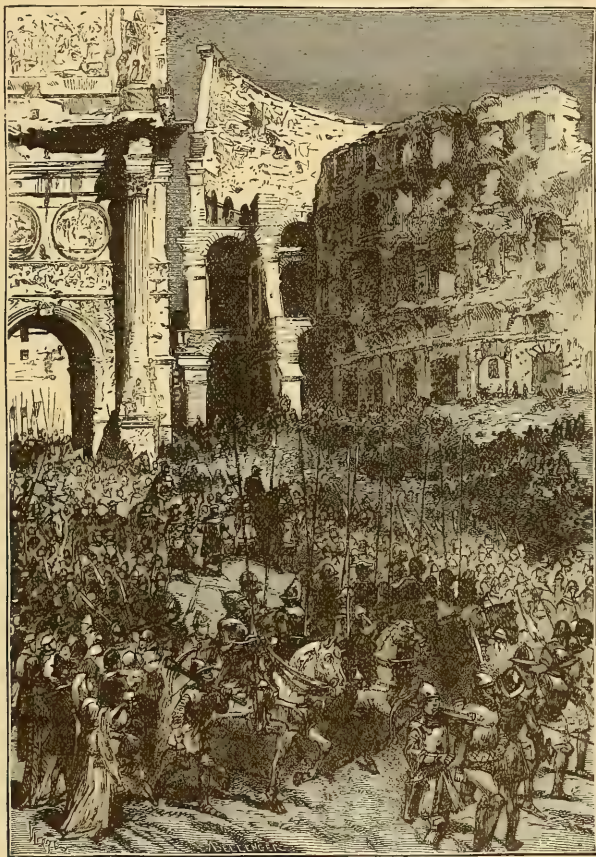
1527. climbed the walls of the eternal city; among the first to fall was Bourbon. The robber band now broke through the streets of the city, plundering the palaces and the dwellings, robbing the churches of their ornaments and their vessels, and mocking the Pope and the cardinals. Clement VII., was obliged to purchase his liberty upon hard conditions, and took the first opportunity to escape. The Emperor expressed great sorrow for the outrages that the head of Christendom had endured.



The French meanwhile made conquests in Upper Italy, and then marched to Naples in order to take this kingdom from the Spaniards. Disease however wasted their army,

1528. and as the imperial troops were also dying rapidly from the effects of their debaucheries, both parties were anxious for peace. The mother of Francis, and

1529. the aunt of Charles, now intervened and brought about the "Ladies



THE TROOPS DEMAND TO BE LED TO ROME. (*Vierge.*)

Peace" of Cambray. Francis renounced his claims to Milan, and paid two million crowns for the ransom of his sons, but retained possession of Burgundy. Maximilian Sforza got back Milan as an imperial fief. The Pope and the Italian princes then made

their peace. Charles V. was crowned by Clement, King of Lombardy, and Emperor of Rome and the Pope was promised the destruction of the heretics and the return of the Medici to Florence. The latter happened immediately; Florence was conquered and deprived of its republican constitution. But the former was not so easy to accomplish. The Diet of Augsburg, which was convened immediately led to no result.

§ 329. But Francis had by no means given up Milan. When Maximilian Sforza died a few years later he made an alliance with the Turks to accomplish this end. Charles about the same time conquered Tunis and brought to an end the piratical kingdom of Hayraddin. By this great achievement he gave freedom to 20,000 Christian slaves. Francis now made a rapid march to Upper Italy, taking possession of Savoy and Piedmont, the duke of which countries was in



GERMAN LANDSKNECHTS. (16th Century.)

close alliance with the Emperor. But the next year Charles marched an army into

Provence in order to attack his adversary in his own country. He was obliged to withdraw, as the French general, Montmorenci, converted all the land between the Rhone and the Alpine passes into a desert, and threatened the imperial army with destruction by starvation. But all Christendom was outraged at Francis' alliance with the Turks, especially as these were making such ravages in Lower Italy

and in the Greek islands.

Pope Paul III. offered therefore his mediation, and brought about the truce of Nice, which left to each combatant what he had in his hands. A personal interview of the two monarchs appeared to have effected a reconciliation, and Charles was so convinced of the good faith of his antagonist, that

when he was obliged to visit the Netherlands the following year he went through Paris. But the friendship was of short duration. In 1541 Charles

undertook a second African campaign, in order to annihilate the pirates of Algiers, who were scouring the Mediterranean Sea. But the storms of autumn, and the attacks of his enemies, made this expedition a failure. The Emperor lost heavily in ships and men, and was obliged to retreat. This disaster filled the king of

France with new hopes; he therefore made a new alliance with the Sultan, and began a fourth war against the Emperor. But the latter marched into France, with a great army from Germany, and moved rapidly upon Paris. Francis

was glad enough to conclude the peace of Crespy. This established the Spanish superiority in Italy. Three years later Francis died. But his

son Henry II., followed the same path. He allied himself with the Protestant princes of Germany, while he oppressed the reformed religion in his own country. And when finally Charles V. passed from the scene of action,

the war between Philip II. and the French king was continued for several years, until  
 1559. the peace of Chateau-Cambresis put an end to the struggle of both monarchs, without, however, destroying the hostility between France and Spain.

### 3. THE RELIGIOUS WARS IN GERMANY.

§ 330. The wars with France, and the danger from the Turks prevented the Emperor from carrying out the decrees of the Augsburg Diet against the German Protestants. While the Ottoman armies were threatening Austria, he thought it unwise to compel by force the return of the people to the Catholic Church. But the imperial courts were beginning to proceed against the evangelical princes and cities, in order to deprive them of their ecclesiastical estates. The Elector of Saxony, and the Landgrave of Hesse took the lead, therefore, in forming a union at Schmalkald, in

1531. which they promised to protect each other, if any Lutheran prince or city was attacked for its adherence to the word of God. The Emperor thought it best to make peace with the union which he did the next year at Nuremberg.

1532. Both parties agreed not to attack each other before the meeting of a church council, and meanwhile legal proceedings should be suspended. This agreement tied the hands of the Protestants and yet it favored the extension of the evangelical doctrine throughout Germany. The most important conquest of the Reform was Wurtemberg. Duke Ulric, a passionate and cruel man, had been driven from his possessions by the

(1519.) Swabian union. He wandered for many years in foreign lands, and his dukedom was governed by Austria until the landgrave, Philip of Hesse, determined to restore him to his possessions. He marched into Wurtemberg,

1534. overcame the Austrians, and restored Ulric to his people, who forgetting their former oppressions, received him back with joy. As Ulric had become a convert to evangelical doctrine, he permitted it to be preached throughout Wurtemberg, and the church of the dukedom was soon transformed. The University of Tübingen, which had been established in 1477, became one of the chief nurseries of evangelical learning.

§ 331. But the new church suffered greatly from strange doctrine. The Anabaptists had not disappeared with the death of Thomas Münzer. Fugitives propagated it, so that it reappeared in many places, although it was opposed by the reformers, and put down by the magistrates. The worst form of it appeared in the city of Münster. The reformation had taken place with such violence that the

1534-1535. bishop had been compelled to fly. But it soon appeared that Rottman, the most influential preacher of the town, was an ana-baptist, and the ana-baptist party obtained such power that they soon were in possession of the magistracy,



HENRY II. (Clont.)



whereupon they drove out all who were not of the same faith, and shared their property among themselves. They established a religious commune, in which John Matthiesen possessed absolute authority. They introduced community of goods, and began the defence of the city against the army of the bishop. Matthiesen was soon killed, and Bockold took his place. His divine revelations, as he called them, led him to follies and to crimes. He turned over the government of the city to twelve elders, who were chosen from the wildest fanatics. He then introduced polygamy and put to death all that dared to oppose him. One of his adherents was "moved by the spirit of God" to propose the title of "King of the new Israel." Bockold put on a crown, clothed himself in splendor, erected his throne of justice on the market place of the city, and began a reign of sensual wickedness and bloody tyranny. He and his people



MAJOR AND LIEUTENANT OF GERMAN LANDS-  
KNECHTS.

defended themselves with courage and endurance for many days. Even when reduced to starvation they continued to resist, and when their walls were stormed by the enemy they fought with the courage of despair. But the city was finally captured by the bishop and his allies. The worst of the leaders were starved to death in iron cages, that were suspended from a tower; the others were beheaded or banished. Münster has been since then a Catholic city. A generation later the Ana-baptists were transformed by the priest Menno, and are now known as Mennonites. They are distinguished by simplicity of dress and manners, by their rejection of priesthood, infant baptism, oaths and military service. But they have given up the dangerous principles of the early time. They lead a quiet life as peasants and farmers. In the North

German cities the aristocracy were compelled to struggle with the democracy of the guilds. In Lübeck the daring Burgomaster, Wullenwöber, placed himself at the head of the democrats and the discontented, and undertook to conquer for the Hanseatic

1537.

League, the countries of the Baltic. He was already in possession of Copenhagen when he was removed from his office and executed as a "revolutionary scoundrel."

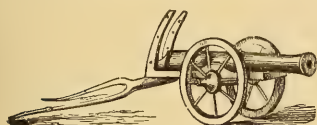
§ 332.

The reformed church soon won an entrance into the dukedom of Saxony, and the electorate of Brandenburg; for the two princes who had hitherto resisted it, both died in 1542. George of Saxony was followed by his brother Henry, who was favorable to the Reformation, and Joachim II. received at Spandau the Lord's Supper in both forms, and permitted the Protestant teachers to indoctrinate his people. Henry of Brunswick would have nothing to do with any faith that he must share with the former friend of his youth, now his bitter enemy, the Landgrave of Hesse. But Henry

1542.

was conquered by the troops of the Saxons and of the Hessians, and led to prison. Along the Rhine and the Neckar the same progress was made, and the

Emperor was finally convinced that neither discussions nor diets would heal the schism. His hope rested entirely upon the general council which Pope Paul III. had convened at Trent. But the Protestants rejected a council which they regarded as partisan, and under the control of the Pope, and demanded a church council of the



CANNON OF THE 16TH CENTURY.

German people. This destroyed the Emperor's last hope of a peaceful solution and determined him to restore the unity of the church by force of arms. In this same year Luther died in his

native town of Eisleben, whither he had gone to reconcile some quarreling friends.

§ 333. When the Emperor determined upon war, he made a secret treaty with the Pope, with the spiritual princes, and with the Duke of Bavaria. But his most important ally was the Protestant duke, Maurice of Saxony. This young prince bitterly disliked his cousin the elector, John Frederick, and was greatly discontented with the course of things. He therefore abandoned the league of Schmalkald, and his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, and joined the Emperor. He promised the latter obedience and a recognition of the decrees of Trent and he was promised in return by Charles an increase of territory, and the electoral dignity of Saxony. The Protestants had not the least knowledge of these alliances. Indeed when the Schmalkaldic army marched to the field, the Elector entrusted the government of his dominion to his cousin Maurice. Scharltin, the general of the South German cities, wished to attack the Emperor at once, but he was overruled. He then proposed to march into the Tyrol, cut off the Italian troops, and to dissolve the council of Trent; but this too was prohibited. Thus Charles gained time to get his troops from Italy, and to take up a secure position. The Protestants lost their opportunity in fruitless skirmishes, until Charles by a junction with troops in the Netherlands, was able to take the offensive. But the cold weather proved so damaging to the Spaniards and the Italians, that the Protestants expected to conclude a favorable peace, when the news reached them that Maurice had turned traitor and marched into the lands of the Elector of Saxony. John Frederick immediately hastened home; the Landgrave of Hesse and the other leaders followed his example; and the army of the league of Schmalkald was dissolved.

§ 334. South Germany now stood open to the Emperor. Well-meaning counselors tried to induce him to make religion free, and thus to bring all classes back to their allegiance and to their obedience. But Charles wished to restore the unity of the church, and, at the same time, to give to the imperial power its ancient authority. He



GERMAN LANDSKNECHTS. (16th Century.)

therefore called upon the South German princes and cities to submit and to renounce the league of Schmalkald. The frightened cities immediately obeyed. Ulm delivered up its cannon, and purchased the forgiveness of the Emperor. Augsburg was abundantly able to resist, but the merchants determined to surrender. Frankfort and Strasburg followed. Duke Ulric of Wurtemberg paid a heavy fine, and delivered over his strongholds to the imperial troops. The Elector of Cologne announced his dignity, and made way for a Catholic successor, who soon restored the mass. In 1547, all South Germany had been reduced to obedience.

§ 335. Meanwhile John Frederick had defeated Maurice and conquered Saxony, except Dresden and Leipzig. The Protestant population greeted him everywhere with joy, and he could easily have collected an army with which to oppose the Emperor, but his allegiance had by no means died out. He refused the offered help. But Maurice

now appealed to the Emperor. The latter hastened with his army to Bohemia, and marched against the Elector. The imperial troops, 27,000 strong, crossed the Elbe, surprised John Frederick while he was at worship, and defeated him in the battle of

1547.

Mühlberg. John himself was taken prisoner. The Emperor tried to frighten him by condemning him to death. But not venturing to execute this sentence, he changed it into imprisonment for life, upon condition that John Frederick would surrender his fortresses and transfer his land, along with the electoral dignity, to Maurice. John bore his imprisonment with submission and pious resignation. Philip of Hesse was the next to be chastised. Maurice and Joachim of Brandenburg interceded for him. The Emperor replied, "If he surrenders unconditionally, begs for mercy,



BISHOPS IN PLUVIALE AND CASULA.

and gives up his fortresses, he shall not be punished with death, or life-long imprisonment." Finally the Emperor agreed orally that Philip should not be injured in body or estate, nor troubled with imprisonment. Trusting to this promise Philip surrendered, and accompanied by the two electors, he went to the imperial camp, and, falling upon his knees before the Emperor, begged for mercy. The Duke of Alba invited him to supper, and then took him prisoner. The Emperor had his two chief enemies in his power, and carried them with him when he left Saxony. But Maurice, who had pledged his honor to his father-in-law, was angry at this breach of faith, and Charles had reason to repent it.

§ 336. The Council of Trent opened its deliberations on the 13th of December, 1545. The proceedings were conducted by the papal legate. The assembly consisted of uncompromising adherents of the papacy. The Protestants, therefore, found little satisfaction in their conclusions. The Emperor, who hoped above all things to bring about a union of both confessions, was greatly displeased. He protested and wished



the conclusions to remain unpublished, especially as the Protestant states had agreed to submit to the council, if certain points were reconsidered. Paul III. not only published the results of the council, but he removed the council itself to Bologna.

**1547.** The Emperor was now exceedingly angry. He forbade the clergy to leave Trent, but was able to retain a minority only. He then published the Augsburg

**1548.** Interim. In this document the cup and marriage of priests were conceded to the evangelical church, and some concessions were made, touching justification and the mass. But the old ceremonies were to be retained in worship. The Protestant princes were willing to accept this Interim, but the cities and the preachers refused. The latter fled from their home to North Germany, which had refused the Interim. Four hundred preachers became fugitives, most of them going to Magdeburg. In Saxony the Leipzig Interim was proclaimed, in the composition of which Melancthon was thought to have made too many concessions. Here also many preachers left their parishes. Magdeburg was put under the imperial ban. Nevertheless a multitude of pamphlets, satires, mocking poems and caricatures issued from the city, all of which breathed hatred and scorn for the Interim and its makers.

§ 337. The Emperor seemed now to have reached his goal. The council returned

**1551.** to Trent, and even Protestant delegates were admitted. Already he was thinking of making his son his successor, and the imperial crown hereditary in his family, when suddenly he found an unexpected adversary in the man to whom he owed his victory, Maurice of Saxony. Maurice secretly made an alliance with several German princes, and secured the help of the French king, Henry II., by a treaty in which he permitted Henry to garrison Metz, and other imperial cities. He offered the city of Magdeburg pardon and religious lib-



GERMAN DRUMMER AND COLOR BEARER. (16th Century.)

erty, and thus induced it to surrender. Charles was warned, but Maurice dissimulated with such skill, that he easily deceived the Emperor, who thought it impossible that he should be outwitted by a German. Suddenly Maurice entered Augsburg, and marched into the Tyrol. He was ap-

**1552.** proaching Innsbruck to take the Emperor prisoner, when a mutiny among his German troops gave Charles the opportunity to escape. The council of Trent dissolved in a panic. Charles set the elector, John Frederick, at liberty, and then fled by night, leaving to his brother Ferdinand the work of making peace. Ferdinand immediately concluded the treaty of Passau, which guaranteed religious

**1552.** freedom to those who adopted the Augsburg confession, abolished the Interim, set the Landgrave of Hesse at liberty, and declared that the decrees of Trent

were not binding upon Protestants. The past was forgiven, and a permanent peace provided for.

§ 338. This treaty of Passau was the last work of Maurice. His ally, Albert of Brandenburg, refused to accept it, and continued his ravages in lower Saxony.

1553. Maurice marched against him to conquer a peace, but in a conflict of horsemen he was mortally wounded. Albert continued his devastations, but was finally captured and condemned to death, but escaped to France. In 1555, the peace of Augsburg was adopted. By this peace the religion of the ruler determined the religion of the subject. Those who would not follow their prince might emigrate. The chief contention was over the clause that required the spiritual princes, who should hereafter adopt the reform doctrines, to forfeit their estates and revenues. This point was left undecided, and became the "seed of bloody harvests."

§ 339. The peace of Augsburg destroyed the Emperor's cherished hopes. He determined to abdicate and to retire to a cloister. In a solemn assembly at Brussels he transferred to his son, Philip, the government of the Netherlands, and a short time

1555. afterward the kingdoms of Spain and Naples, as well as the New World. The Austrian states, and the conduct of German affairs, he had already given to his brother, Ferdinand. He then retired to West Spain to the cloister, San Juste. Here he lived two years in retirement, employed in religious exercises and pious meditation, but not altogether careless of the affairs of the empire. Ferdinand I., chosen emperor by the German princes, then united the imperial crown with the Austrian hereditary kingdom, and held faithfully to the religious peace which he had promised to observe.

#### 4. PROGRESS OF THE REFORMATION IN EUROPE.

##### *a. Lutheranism and Calvinism.*

§ 340. Charles V., by his ecclesiastical policy, prevented the conquest of the whole German nation by the reform movement. The treaty of Passau and the peace of Augsburg created a divided Germany. The Lutheran reform extended gradually from Saxony and Hesse to the neighboring countries, acquired supremacy in North Germany, made great progress in Franconia and Swabia, and from Strasburg spread into Alsace and Lorraine. It spread also along the Vistula and the Baltic, where the grandmaster of the Teutonic order, Albert of Brandenburg, united with the evangelical church, converted the province of Prussia into a hereditary dukedom, and acknowledged the overlordship of Poland. The Grandmaster of the Knights of the Sword did the same thing in Courland and Livland. But the House of Hapsburg, the dukes of Bavaria, and the ecclesiastical princes of Germany, were enthusiastically devoted to the ancient church, while Ingolstadt was a nursery for the old faith. Nevertheless the two emperors, Ferdinand I., and Maximilian II., refused to do violence to the consciences of their subjects, and the evangelical doctrine soon had numerous confessors in Austrian territory. The Protestants obtained toleration and built many churches, and in Hungary and Transylvania they were more numerous than the Catholics. In Bohemia, the Hussites became for the most part Lutheran, but the later princes of Austria abolished the rights of the Protestants, and gave exclusive dominion to the Roman church. The doctrine of Zwingli was adopted by several South German cities, but spread no farther. When, however, Calvin elaborated the principles of Zwingli into a complete system of doctrines, the Calvinistic Reformed church in Ger-

many grew quite rapidly. Frederick the Third, of the Palatinate, introduced it into his dominion, and caused the composition of the Heidelberg Catechism.

It found its way also into Hesse, Bremen, and Brandenburg. Melancthon and his disciples were at heart Calvinists, and the publication of his opinions brought upon him

so much opposition and defamation that he died in great sorrow. His adherents, who were called Philipists or Crypto-Calvinists, were bitterly persecuted in

Saxony. The formula of Concord, which was signed by thirty Lutheran princes and cities in the year 1580, was intended to restore unity, but only

widened the breach between the Calvinists and the Lutherans. Chancellor Crell, who tried to convert Saxony to Calvinism, was first imprisoned and then beheaded as a

traitor.

§ 341. Switzerland likewise had two evangelical doctrines, although the teaching of Zwingli was by no means so far from the system of Calvin as that of Luther.

Calvin, Calvin had

fled from France to Geneva, in which Farel had already begun the preaching of reform. At the latter's earnest entreaty, he remained in Geneva, where he exercised a powerful influence upon the constitution, religion, morals and culture of the city. He was a man of lofty intelligence and moral power; severe with himself



JOHN CALVIN.

and severe with others; opposed to every earthly pleasure, he governed men purely by a strong will. In his doctrine he followed Zwingli, although in his views of predestination and grace he went beyond him, and even beyond Augustine. Like Zwingli he desired to restore the simplicity of primitive Christian worship. Pictures, decoration, organs, candles, crucifixes he banished from the church. Worship consisted in prayer, preaching and the singing of psalms. Sunday (or the Sabbath) was the only church festival. The constitution of the Calvinistic church was republican in form. The congregation elected elders who administered discipline, chose its own clergymen, watched over the morals of the people, and the relief of the poor. Clergymen and elders together formed the Synods which legislated for the churches. The Calvinists forbade the theater and the dance, and



the pleasures of society, and consequently their teaching took no such root in the higher classes as in the others.

§ 342. Calvinism extended from Geneva into southern France. Its adherents were soon so numerous that they could enter upon a desperate struggle with the ruling church. The French court wavered for a while, but political reasons decided it to



HENRY VIII.

stand by the Roman hierarchy. The so-called reformed faith was forbidden. Calvinistic preachers were burned at the stake, the followers of Calvin were nick-named *Huguenots*, and persecuted with great bitterness. From France and Switzerland, Calvinism spread into the Netherlands, and in the northern provinces became victorious after a desperate struggle. In Scotland the new teaching was opposed by the court and the clergy, and many of its confessors were committed to the flames. Mary of Guise, the queen regent, was eagerly devoted to the Roman church, and in conjunction with Cardinal Beaton did her utmost to root out heresy. But the Cardinal was

murdered by a mob of conspirators in his own house. The regent, after a three years struggle against the reform, passed to another world, and John Knox, who had been a

1561. pupil of Calvin in Geneva, conquered Scotland for the reform teaching. The confession of faith, the form of worship, and the Presbyterian constitution of the Calvinists, were introduced into Scotland, the mass forbidden as idolatry, and the church property confiscated. Cloisters and cathedrals were destroyed in an out-



CARDINAL THOMAS WOLSEY.

break of blind rage. The Scottish church soon came to be called the Presbyterian. The Puritans of England held the same principles, but they were compelled to yield to the adherents of episcopacy. Numerous sects started into existence, which received their development on the free soil of North America.

*b. The Founding of the Anglican Church.*

§ 343. England at first met the adherents of Luther with bloody persecution, and

**Henry VIII.**, king Henry VIII., by his learned treatise against the German reformer, **1509-1542.** acquired from the Pope the title of "Protector of the Faith." But Henry's adherence to the Pope was changed into hatred, when Clement VII. refused to declare void his marriage with Catharine of Aragon, the aunt of the Emperor Charles V. The king was partly moved by doubts of the validity of his marriage with the widow of his deceased brother, and partly by his desire to marry the beautiful Anne Boleyn. After waiting many years for a decision from Rome, he grew weary of delay and determined upon the separation of the English Church from the papacy. He removed Cardinal Wolsey from office, made Thomas Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury,

**1533.** and resting upon the opinions of English and foreign universities, he declared his marriage with Catharine to be null and void. He then compelled the clergy to recognize him as the head of the English church, and induced parliament to pass statutes

**1534.** abolishing the authority and the power of the pope in England. He dissolved the monasteries, turning monks and nuns hungry and helpless into the world, and confiscated their property partly in favor of the crown, and

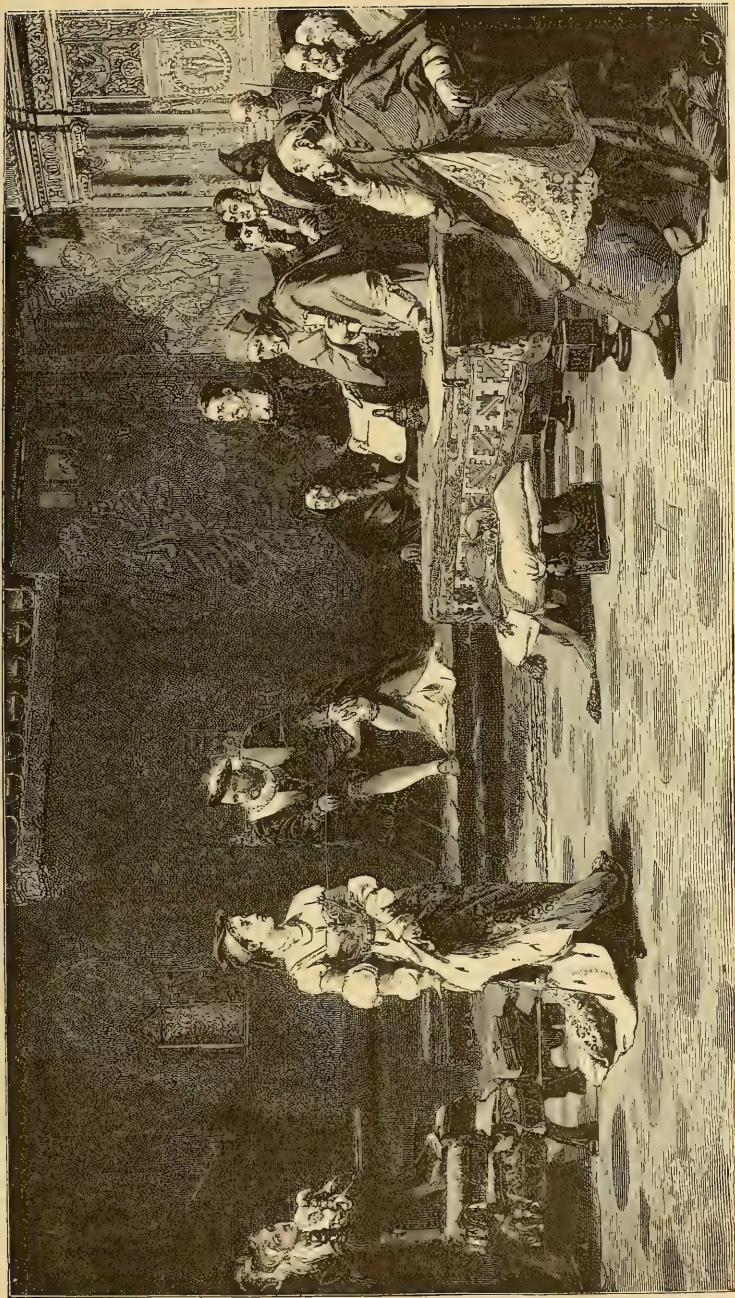
partly in favor of his friends. The institutions of the Catholic Church were for the most part untouched, and the statutes of the Six Articles (called by the people

**1539.** The Bloody Articles) commanded upon penalty of death the observance of celibacy, of auricular confession of monastic vows, and of the mass, and required all to believe in transubstantiation, and the withholding of the cup. Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More (once lord-chancellor and author of *Utopia*) died on the



THOMAS MORE TAKING LEAVE OF HIS DAUGHTER. (*A. Zick.*)





CATHERINE OF ARAGON DEFENDING HERSELF. (*L. J. Polit.*)

scaffold because they refused to acknowledge the King as the head of the church. The Pope excommunicated Henry and his adherents, at the moment when the dissolution of the monasteries provoked a rebellion in the North of England. Henry replied by executing the friends and relatives of the English cardinal Pole, who had published the bull of excommunication, and by handing abbots and monks over to the executioner.

§ 344. The rejected Catharine soon died in exile. But Anne Boleyn did not long survive her. Hardly was the second wife beheaded by her jealous husband, when the beautiful Jane Seymour died in child-bed. Henry then married Anne of Cleves, but neither her face nor her manners pleased the King, so he put her away and Cromwell, who had brought about the marriage, fell into disfavor, and was soon beheaded. Catharine Howard, Henry's fifth wife, expiated her unfaithfulness upon the scaffold, and Catharine Parr, who was eagerly devoted to the Reformation, escaped death only by her great intelligence. Even on his own death-bed Henry signed death warrants.



BURNING HERETICS. (*A. de Neuville.*)

§ 345. Edward VI. was but ten years old when his father died. This necessitated a regency, in which the Duke of Somerset and Arch-bishop Cranmer exercised the greatest influence. The first became Protector of England, usurped the whole authority of the state, and greatly favored the plans of Cranmer for the establishment of the Anglican church. Cranmer proceeded with care and moderation to blend together Catholic and Protestant elements. "The Book of Common Prayer" was composed in English from the old English missals. Festivals and the worship of the saints were abolished, the Lord's Supper was administered in both forms, the clergy were allowed to marry and the Confession of Faith, or the thirty-nine articles, were brought into substantial harmony with the confessions of the continental reformers. The episcopal form of government, the use of the surplice, and other features of the English Church, lean to the Roman Catholic system. But the king and not the pope was made the head of the church, archbishops and bishops being appointed by

1552. him. Somerset by his tyranny made himself many enemies, who finally accomplished his execution. The Duke of Northumberland succeeded him and governed the realm even more absolutely. He persuaded Edward on his death-bed to alter the last will of his father, and to name as his successor Lady Jane Grey, a grandniece of Henry VIII. But hatred for Northumberland, and for his son Dudley, the husband of Lady Jane, brought about a reaction in favor of Mary. By the declaration



MARY TUDOR.

that she would disturb no one in matters of belief, the people were brought to her support, and placed her upon the throne. Northumberland died upon the scaffold. Dudley and Lady Jane languished for a time in prison, and then were executed. Lady Jane was the most cultivated woman of her time, beautiful, pious, and singularly intelligent.

§ 346. Mary did not keep her promise. Brought up in the Catholic faith, for which her mother suffered, her chief thought was the restoration of the papal power. She induced her parliament to abolish the reforms of Edward VI., restored the former



religion of Rome, and arranged with Cardinal Pole, whom she had appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, measures to root out heresy. The bishops who resisted were deposed: Cranmer, Latimer and Ridley were burned to death at Oxford, and the flames of martyrdom were kindled throughout the realm. Not to attend the mass was a capital offense. Crowds of fugitives crossed the channel and sought protection in



ELIZABETH.

Germany and Switzerland. Persecution became hotter when Mary married Philip of Spain. But her sorrow over the evident dislike of her husband shortened her days. The people called her Bloody Mary, but she was only a gloomy, unfortunate and dis-

*Elizabeth,* appointed woman. Her half-sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne  
*1558-1603.* Boleyn, exchanged her cell in the tower for a royal palace, and by the

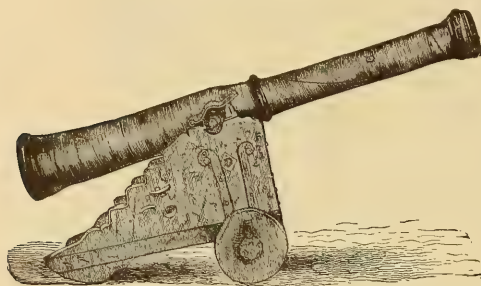
1562. Act of Uniformity restored the church establishment of Edward. The book of common prayer and the thirty-nine articles were made obligatory, and the court of High Commission appointed by the Queen to supervise the affairs of the church. The returning fugitives hoped to induce her to adopt the principles of Calvin, but Elizabeth had no mind for the simplicity of the puritan forms, or for their notions of



church government. This led to the separation of some of the Puritans from the Anglican church, and to the gradual development of a Presbyterian party inside the establishment. The separatists were persecuted and driven from the kingdom into Holland. Presbyterians inside the church organization first made their power felt under the Stuarts.

c. *The Reformation in the Three Scandinavian Kingdoms.*

§ 347. Christian II., the last king under the Union of Calmar, so embittered the nobility by his cruelty that the insurrections broke out in Sweden and Denmark. These led to the dissolution of the union, and to the introduction of the evangelical church. In Sweden, Gustavus Vasa was the author of this ecclesiastical and political change, and the founder of a powerful dynasty. He had been taken to Denmark by Christian II. as a hostage, but he escaped to Lübeck, where he was protected and furnished with money with which to liberate his native land. In the very year in which the massacre of Stockholm filled Sweden with terror, Gustavus landed on his native shores. He escaped a thousand dangers by his own resolute courage, and the fidelity of his countrymen, and although the agents of Christian pursued him everywhere, he was able to gather about him a band of peasants who defeated the Danish troops and their allies, and soon took possession of Upsåla. The glory of his name, and the cry of freedom soon brought him adherents from every section. Lübeck supported him with troops, cannon, and money, so that he compelled the Danish garrison to



OLD SWEDISH LEATHER CANNON.

leave the kingdom, and having been chosen king by the Swedish diet, he entered Stockholm in triumph. The new monarchy was at first elective, but twenty years later the diet declared the crown hereditary in the male line of Vasa. The

royal estate, however, had been so wasted by the Danes, that the dignity of the crown required increased revenues. The Reformation furnished a welcome opportunity. The people, instructed in the new doctrine by the brothers Petri, accepted it willingly, and the diet confiscated the estates of the clergy, inasmuch as they had taken part with the Danes, and showed no interest in the independence of their country. Gustavus then gradually introduced the Reformation everywhere, and took from the church the largest part of her revenue. The nobility, in order to enrich themselves, supported his undertaking. The bishops, after a long resistance, recognized the new order of things, and were allowed to remain as superintendents of the church, but dependent upon the king and limited by consistories.

§ 348. Denmark, meanwhile, had also undergone a great change. Frederick I. of Schleswig-Holstein had been acknowledged as king by the nobility and the people, and had strengthened himself against his rival, Christian II., by encouraging the evangelical teaching. While Frederick was conceding to the Protestants equality with the Catholics, and arranging for the independence of the Danish church, Christian II. had gone over to the Emperor and Pope, and with their help was making an attack upon Denmark. But he was captured and imprisoned for sixteen years in a gloomy tower. Christian III., the



son of Frederick, completed the victory of the Lutheran church in Denmark. The clergy forfeited most of their estates to the crown and the nobility, while the bishops became wholly dependant upon the government. In Norway the new church was established by the peasants, but in Iceland the bishops and their adherents fell with arms in their hands. The Swedish and Danish nobility acquired, by the Reformation, great wealth, power, and privileges.

§ 349. Gustavus Vasa established the welfare of Sweden by good laws, and by the encouragement of commerce and of industry. But his sons experienced a bitter

**Eric XIV.,** fate. Eric XIV. was so violent and so suspicious that he at last became

**1560-1568.** insane. He murdered several members of the Sture family with his

own hands, and the nobles all quaked with fear. They therefore formed a conspiracy under the lead of his brothers, as a result of which Eric was imprisoned and put to

**John III.,** death. His brother, John III., succeeded him. His first wife, the

**1568-1592.** daughter of the Polish king, was a bigoted Catholic, and she in connection with a Jesuit, who lived in Stockholm secretly as an ambassador, induced to

the King to restore the ancient faith, and to bring up the young prince Sigismund as a Catholic. But the Swedish people earnestly resisted the Catholic ceremonies and John repented the undertaking, especially as his second wife worked for the evangelical

**Sigismund,** church. But his son Sigismund, who was also king of Poland, suffered

**1592-1600.** greatly through his Catholic education. When the Swedish diet made

the evangelical Lutheran religion the sole religion of Sweden, Sigismund refused to obey. His uncle Karl was appointed Protector of the Realm. Sigismund defended his rights with arms. But he was conquered and given the choice to renounce the papacy and retain his kingdom, or to send his son to Sweden to be educated in the Lutheran religion. Sigismund refused to send his son, so Karl IX. obtained the crown, and a new law of succession secured it to his offspring.

§ 350. This provoked a war between Sweden and Poland. Under Gustavus

**Karl IX.,** Adolphus, the son of Karl, this war resulted to the advantage of

**1600-1611.** Sweden. Livland, and other provinces, were lost to Poland, whose

power now steadily decreased. The Polish nobility resisted all attempts to reform the church or to reorganize the state. A few persecuted religionists found protection and toleration in Poland, and the "dissidents," as the adherents of the new doctrines were called, acquired, after many struggles, religious liberty and civil equality. This however they were unable to retain. Yet opinions which were rejected by the reformers found toleration in Poland, especially the Socinians, a Unitarian sect that rejected the mystery of the Trinity.

#### d. *The Catholic Church.*

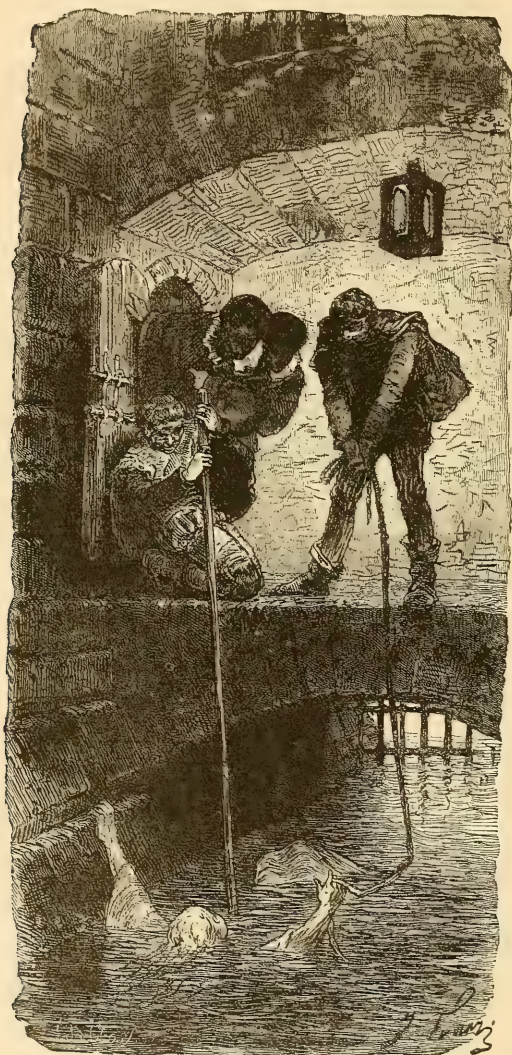
§ 351. Spain and Italy were not without traces of the Reformation, but the nature of the people, and the severity of the Inquisition hindered the progress of Reform. Among the confessors of the new doctrine were scholars and writers like Peter Martyr who were compelled to seek safety in foreign lands. Some adopted principles which

**1553.** were rejected by the reformers as false doctrine. Socinus, already

mentioned, was an Italian and Servetus, who was burned, was a Spaniard.

The leaders of the Catholic church did not give up the idea of suppressing the new doctrine; wherever they could, they sought to obtain this end by force, and where

the use of force was impossible, they did their utmost to prevent the preaching of the



TRIAL BY WATER.

**Hadrian VI.**, Protestant

**1522-1523.** beliefs. Al-

most all the popes, even Hadrian VI., and Paul III, who earnestly desired to reform the church, were exceedingly severe

**Paul III.**, against the

**1534-1549.** Protestants.

Paul IV, a gloomy octogenarian monk, so provoked the people by his cruelty, that on the day

**Paul IV.**, of his death

**1555-1559.** they mutilated his statues, and

burned down the house of the Inquisition. The Council of Trent began its third session under Pius IV., in January, 1562.

**Pius IV.**, The decrees

**1559-1565.** of this council

are the fundamental doctrines of the Catholic church. The confessions of faith of the ancient councils were declared infallible, and the creed of the church expressed in a most indefinite form. Pure ethics were re-established, church discipline im-

**Dec. 4, 1563.** proved, and the clerical order brought under closer supervision. The Council of Trent completed the development of the Roman Catholic church, and in three cen-

**Gregory XIII.**, tries no

**1572-1585.** subsequent

council was called. Gregory XIII. reformed the calendar by passing from

the fourth of October to the fifteenth. He also ordered the singing of a *Te Deum* when he received the news of the massacre of Saint Bartholemew. The greatest pope of the century was Sixtus V. He began life as a shepherd boy, became a Franciscan, *Sixtus V.* then an inquisitor, afterward a cardinal, and finally head of the *1585-1590.* church. He was a powerful ruler, maintaining order with great severity, and erecting great buildings, and excavating the monuments of antiquity from the ruins of ancient Rome.



IGNATIUS LOYOLA.

§ 352. The Jesuits or "Company of Jesus," were the chief support of the popes in their efforts to arrest the reformation. This powerful order was founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman, a soldier, a dreamer, an organizer and an enthusiast.

*1540.*

Led to renounce his military career by a wound that crippled him for life, and by reading the lives of the saints, he made a painful pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulcher. Commanded to return and to get an education, he studied with incredible perseverance, at Salamanca and Paris, and then sought and found six companions who would join him in the conquest of the world for Mary and her Son. They took three

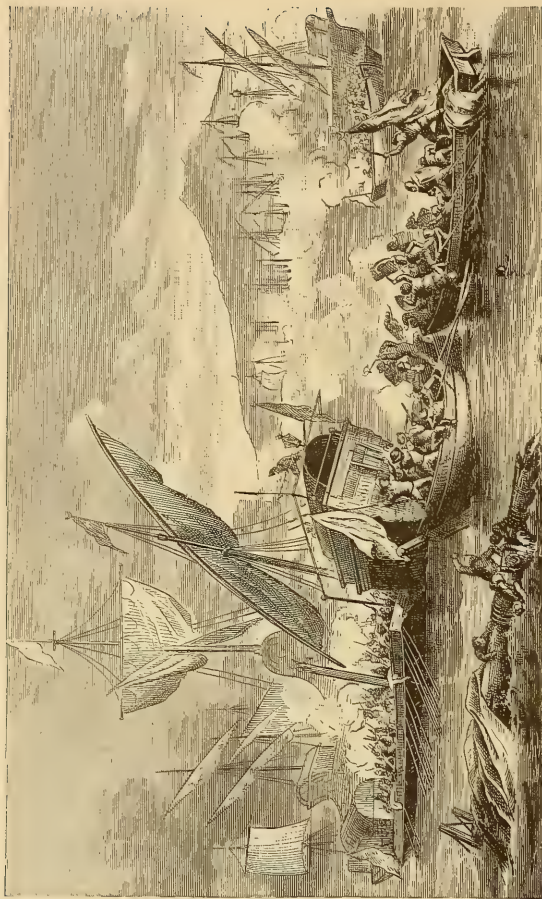
vows, poverty, chastity and obedience, and then offered themselves unconditionally to the Pope. The new order was, after much difficulty, recognized and sanctioned

Ignatius was its first general, and Laynez, one of the six recruits, perfected its remarkable constitution. This constitution was altogether unique. The general in Rome, commands the "provincials" or the commanders of the provinces, and these in turn command subordinates in different ranks and degrees. The watchword of the company is obedience. The members of the order are guarded vigilantly, and all the ties that bind them to the world are sundered. Candidates must serve a long probation, during which their qualities and inclinations are carefully studied, so that each one may be appointed to his proper work. Some are sent to the cloister, others trained to science; some undertake the instruction of the young, the ablest subtilests are sent to courts and palaces, and those endowed with eloquence are used as preachers at home, or sent as missionaries to foreign lands. Privileged by the popes in a most extraordinary way, and enriched by donations and legacies, the Jesuits acquired a various and powerful influence. Their chief end was the overthrow of Protestantism and the suppression of



SPANISH GALLEASS OF THE 16TH CENTURY.





THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO.

intellectual freedom. This they sought in different ways; by *persuasion* to bring the adherents of the new faith back to the ancient church, by the *confessional* in which they urged princes and influential persons to oppose the Reformation, and to limit the freedom of belief; by *education* of the young, in which they sought to gain the rising generation for their principles. But the order soon became the object of popular hatred, because it destroyed religious peace, and taught strange doctrines of morality. The teaching that "the end justifies the means," is not to be found just in those words among Jesuit maxims, but the doctrine that words and oaths when uttered have no validity, "if the mind thinks otherwise," was used by

them in a most destructive fashion.

##### 5. THE AGE OF PHILIP II., (1556-1598) AND OF ELIZABETH (1558-1603).

§ 353. Philip II. of Spain was a morose and misanthropic prince, who had three aims:—the increase of his dominion, the extermination of Protestantism, and the destruction of popular liberties and rights. To reach these, he sacrificed the happiness of nations, the welfare of his kingdom, the love of his people and of his family. His half-

1571.

brother Don Juan, who conquered the Turks at Lepanto, was surrounded by the King with a web of falsehoods, trickery and espionage, so that all his

undertakings were baffled and he himself hurried to his grave. Philip's son, Don Carlos, died in the dungeons of the Inquisition. By means of this terrible court, and his frequent *autos da fé*, he succeeded in destroying every trace of heresy in Spain and Naples, and robbing the people of their freedom. But he destroyed at the same time the greatness of both countries. When, however, he undertook to bend the Netherlands to the same yoke, he provoked that memorable contest from which freedom rose triumphant. After a reign of forty-two years which was the grave of Spanish greatness, Philip succumbed to a terrible disease. He left a land loaded with debt and wasted with cruelty. The Duke of Alba was a cruel instrument of his tyrannical commands. Master and servant have received the execration of mankind.

*a. Portugal United with Spain.*

§ 354. Portugal shared the fate of Spain. Both lands were oppressed by a powerful priesthood, supported by an absolute king. The rights of the people were destroyed, their intelligence blunted, their heroism reduced to slavery and their prosperity brought to an end. A mournful fate united Portugal to Spain.

King Sebastian undertook a campaign against the unbelieving Moors in North Africa. On a terribly hot day in August, he attacked the army of the enemy in the plains of Alcasar, and suffered a complete defeat. Ten thousand Christian warriors were left upon the field of battle. Among the missing was King Sebastian, although his body could not be discovered. The crown of Portugal became vacant and Philip II. sent Duke Alba to make good his claim. The Portuguese favored Antonio, another claimant, but the latter was too feeble to maintain his pretended rights against the Spaniards. He was forced to fly, whereupon Lisbon and the whole land submitted to Philip. The Portuguese were under Spanish rule for sixty years, and until the rich and influential Duke of Braganza acquired the throne. But meanwhile the Portuguese sea-power had fallen into decay and their foreign possessions passed to other hands.



CHAMBER OF HORRORS. (Nürnberg.)

*b. The Fight for Freedom in the Netherlands.*

§ 355. The Netherlands had of old possessed important chartered rights and liberties. Among these was the right to determine their own taxes, to an independent judiciary, to a domestic army, and to native born officials. Charles V. had often violated these rights, but the fondness of the Emperor for the people of the Netherlands, among whom he was born and whose character he loved, warded off hostilities. Philip, on the contrary, was a haughty Spaniard who looked upon the Netherlands as a subject province, and frequently attacked their ancient privileges.

He appointed his half-sister Margaret of Parma, a woman of masculine mind to  
 1550. be regent in Brussels. He surrounded her with a cabinet council in which Cardinal Granvelle presided, and he marched a Spanish garrison into the land. But the Netherlanders, many of whom inclined to evangelical teaching, were most outraged when the King, in order to preserve the ancient teaching, increased the laws against heretics and determined to create fourteen new bishops. This was a prelude to the introduction of the Spanish Inquisition, and Granvelle, who was to be the Metropolitan of all these sees, had already the title of "Grand Inquisitor." The patriotic party with William of Orange and Count Egmont at their head, urged the King to respect the institutions of the land, to modify the laws against heresy, and to permit liberty of belief. But Philip answered that he would "rather die a thousand times than permit the slightest change in religion."

§ 356. The adherents of the new church were to be found among the common people only. The nobility clung to the old faith, but were nevertheless determined to oppose the Inquisition. Four hundred of them signed the so-called Compromise, and



MOORISH KINGS.

November, 1565. petitioned for the suspension of the Inquisition. When they presented this to the Regent she was greatly disturbed. One of her counsellors said to her she should not be alarmed at these "beggars." The phrase was adopted as the watchword of their league. They called themselves beggars, (*Gueux*) and wore around their necks a medal with the likeness of the king, and the inscription "faithful to the king, though he make us beggars." The petition met with no success. The heretics were deprived of liberty, property, and life; nevertheless the new teaching spread everywhere. Psalms were sung; the people went in throngs to hear the field-preachers;

monks and holy objects were hooted on the streets. And finally the people of Antwerp and Brussels broke into the churches and the cloisters, tore down crucifixes, and destroyed sacred images and pictures. Moderate men regretted these excesses, and aided in their punishment. Order was soon restored, and Margaret herself advised gentleness and mercy. But her suggestions were despised. Philip determined to send the Duke of Alba with a Spanish army into the

Alba.

1567-1573.

Netherlands and to compel the people by severity and force.

§ 357. The news of Alba's arrival drove the Netherlanders to flight. William of Orange, a calm, sagacious man, resolute, energetic and silent, bent before the storm and retired to Germany. He sought in vain to persuade Egmont to do likewise. But Egmont trusted to his great services and remained. Alba was no sooner arrived, than he arrested Egmont and Count Horn on a charge of high treason, and beheaded them





THE BEGGARS BEFORE THE COUNCIL.

(pp. 448.)

1568. with eighteen other noblemen in the market place of Brussels. They were tried by "the Council of Insurrection," called by the Netherlanders the Bloody Council. This tribunal punished with incredible cruelty all who believed the new doctrine, and all who fought for ancient rights and institutions. The regent Margaret, indignant at these cruelties, resigned her position and returned to Italy. But Alba erected a citadel in Antwerp, and maintained a reign of terror for six years. In utter disregard of law, he laid a tax upon the land, and distributed it so unequally as to cut the root of commercial prosperity. This oppression and the inhuman cruelties of the Spanish troops at last created such an uproar, that Madrid determined to recall Alba. The news that the sea-beggars had conquered Briel, that the northern provinces had



THE CITIZEN'S GUARD VIEWING THE BEHEADED BODIES OF COUNTS EGMONT AND HORN.  
(*Louis Gallart.*)

1572. united together, and that William of Orange had been made Stadtholder, convinced the Spanish court that Alba's methods were after all a failure.

1574. When he left the Netherlands the northern provinces established Calvinism as the religion of the country, accepted the Heidelberg catechism, and founded a university in the city of Leyden.

§ 358. Alba's successors, Zuniga and Requesens, abolished the council of insurrection, and sought to restore the authority of Spain by milder measures, but the hatred of the people for the foreign soldiers prevented reconciliation.

1574. Even the Spanish victory, in which the two brothers of Orange were





THE ICONOCLASTS. (*A. de Neuville.*)

(pp. 445.)



1576-1578. slain, produced no effect. Don Juan was now entrusted with the difficult task. But before he arrived the troops broke out in mutiny and murder. Orange was therefore able to unite all the provinces in a league

1576. for the expulsion of the Spanish army, and Don Juan was not able to restore the shattered power of his brother. Alexander Farnese of Parma, next



MURDER OF THE DUKE OF GUISE. (*Vierge.*)

1578-1592. assumed command. Like Don Juan he sought to separate the southern from the northern provinces. Thereupon William of Orange united the

1579. northern provinces in a closer union. This union was the foundation of the united states of the Netherlands. The southern provinces were so discordant that Parma succeeded in suppressing the insurrection in many places, and in bringing several cities to obedience. Philip now directed all his hatred against Orange. He

declared him an outlaw, and offered great rewards and a patent of nobility to whoever might deliver him alive or dead. Several attempts were made to assassinate him,

and finally the ball of a fanatic named Gerard stretched him dead in the city of Delft. The

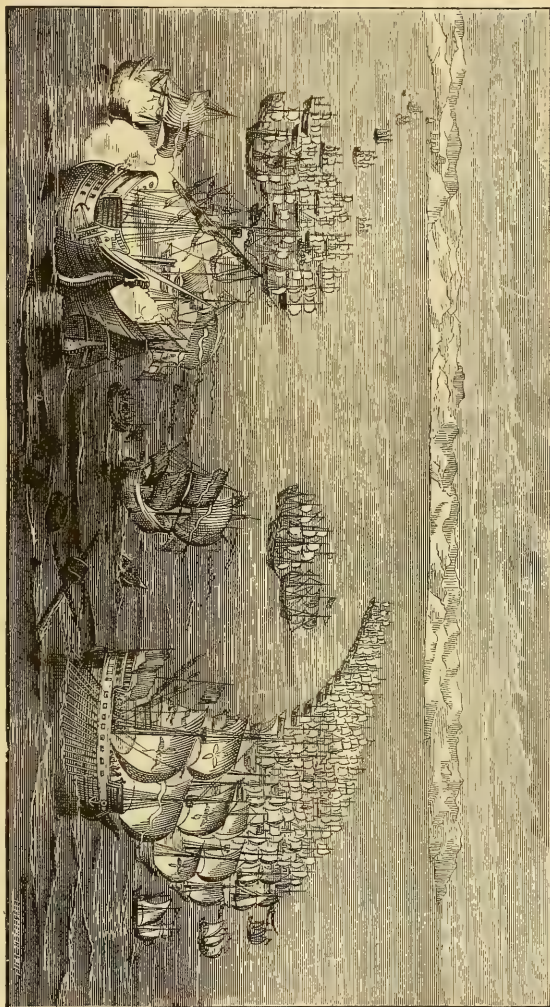
1584. murderer was seized and executed, and the northern provinces elected his son Maurice to take the place of William the Silent.

§ 359. The hatred of Catholics and Protestants for each other in the western states of Europe was now greater than ever. The Catholics placed their confidence in Philip of Spain, the Protestants were supported secretly or openly by Elizabeth of England. She sent Leicester with an army to the Netherlands, she supported the French Huguenots against the Catholic league and the Jesuits, and when

1582. her own life was threatened by fanatics, she signed the death warrant of Mary Stuart. Philip

now determined to chastise heretical England and its excommunicated Queen. He assembled the invincible Armada, consisting of 130 war-ships, and sent it under

THE ENGLISH FLEET FOLLOWING THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA. (From the tapestry in the House of Lords, destroyed by fire at the Houses of Parliament.)



the command of Medina Sidonia to subjugate England and the Netherlands. But the "Invincible Armada" was conquered by the storms of the sea, and by the skill and bravery of the English. What escaped the calamities of the channel was shattered on the shores of Scotland.

It was a fatal blow. When Sidonia returned to Spain, Philip murmured, "I sent you against men and not against the storms and cliffs." Spain's superiority at sea was broken, and the independence of the Netherlands was secured. For, although the war lasted twenty years longer, the Spaniards were unable with all their bravery and skill to subjugate the land. Maurice of Orange proved to be a

1598.

splendid leader, and the northern states fought successfully for their freedom. Shortly before his death, Philip transferred the Netherlands to his daughter Clara, with the condition that if she died childless, the land should return to Spain. But the united states of Holland would not consent to the plan: they con-

1600.

tinued the war after Philip's death. Finally, Henry IV. of France, negotiated a truce that secured their independence, religious freedom, and their colossal trade with the East Indies. But the independence of the united states of Holland was not formally acknowledged until the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. The southern provinces (Belgium) continued for a century with Spain, and then passed to Austria.

§ 360. *Commerce, Constitution, Religion.* Holland emerged from the struggle prosperous and powerful. The Dutch established their East India company in 1602, and opened up direct communication with India, at the same time depriving the Portuguese of many settlements. Batavia, on the island of Java, became the center of their profitable trade. The constitution of the United Netherlands, which was perfected by their great statesman, Olden Barneveld, was that of an aristocratic republic. A general court composed of representatives of the seven provinces, constituted the legislative body. The high council with the Stadtholder at its head, conducted the government, but the army and navy were commanded exclusively by the Stadtholder. The arts and sciences prospered greatly, and philology, especially, was carefully studied at the Dutch universities, while the Dutch painters rivalled the great Italian masters. But Protestant Holland did not escape religious dissension. A quarrel about predestination and the relation of church and state, divided the country into two parties; a strictly orthodox one, to which Maurice of Orange and his following belonged, and a moderate one, of which the champions were Olden Barneveld and Hugo Grotius. The latter would have subordinated the

1610.

church to the state but the Synod of Dort decided in favor of the former. Olden Barneveld, in spite of his great services, died upon the scaffold; and Hugo Grotius, the historian of the "War for Liberty," and the founder of international law, was sent to prison, from which he was rescued by the cunning and fidelity of his wife.

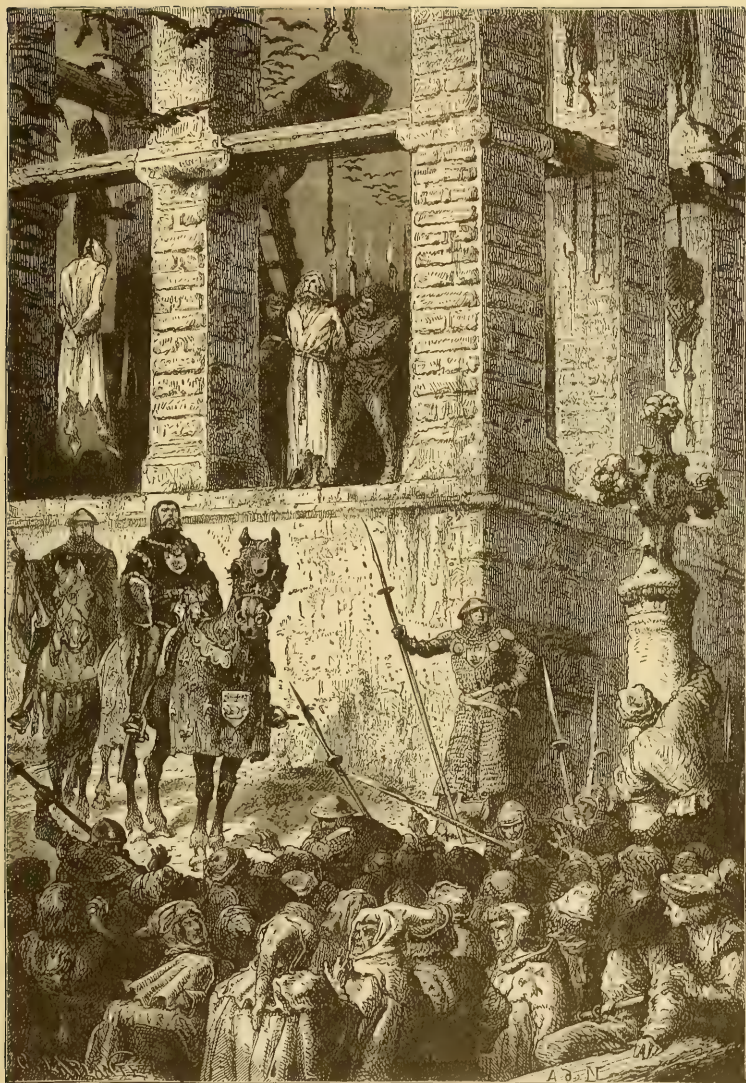
### c. *France during her Religious Wars.*

§ 361. King Henry II., a stern adversary of the Huguenots, died from a wound received at a tournament in 1559. His weak and sickly son Francis

Henry II.  
1547-1559.

II., succeeded him. He was married to the beautiful Mary Stuart, of





*Francis II.* Scotland, on which account her uncles, the Guises, had great influence

*1559-1560.* at court. They were zealous adherents of the pope, and they used their position to oppress the reformers. This enabled their rivals, especially the Prince of Condé, of the Bourbon family, and the Admiral Coligny, to strengthen themselves by an alliance with the Huguenots. Party hatred increased with every day; each sought to conquer by the help of the King. The Diet of Orleans was looked upon by both parties as the fitting moment for the execution of their plan. The Guises obtained the upper hand; the Huguenot chiefs were already imprisoned, when the sudden death of the King changed the face of affairs. Catharine de Medici, the queen

*Charles IX.* mother of Charles IX., was now supreme and the Bourbons recovered

*1560-1571.* their influence at court. The Guises returned to Lorraine, and Mary Stuart sorrowfully and reluctantly set sail for Scotland.

§ 362. This departure of the Guises brought toleration to the reformers. The Duke of Guise, embittered at this concession, formed an alliance with powerful noblemen for the maintainance of the ancient faith, and returned to Paris. As the Duke

*1562.* and his train passed a barn in Vassy, they found some Calvinists engaged in worship. These they massacred without mercy. Instantly a cry for vengeance rang through the land. France was divided in two hostile camps that fought each other with the utmost bitterness. Horrible cruelties were committed, and the kingdom shaken to its foundation. The Catholics obtained help from Rome and Spain, the Huguenots were supported by England, and obtained soldiers from Germany and Switzerland. An indecisive battle was fought at Dreux;



MARY STUART.

*1563.* Duke Francis, of Guise, was murdered

at the siege of Orleans. A short truce followed, in which religious toleration was secured for the Calvinists. But the truce was soon violated. The parties

*1567.* again confronted each other, fully armed. But in spite of the bravery of the Huguenots at the battle of St. Denis, the Catholic party maintained control, because Catherine de Medici cast in her fortunes with the ancient church. Several bloody engagements took place in the vicinity of La Rochelle; Condé was assassinated, and finally the treaty of St. Germain was agreed upon, in

*1570.* which the Calvinists were guaranteed the exercise of their religion. Condé's nephew, Henry of Navarre, now joined the Huguenots, but the soul of the reform party was Coligny, who stood by Prince Henry's side as leader and counsellor.

§ 363. After the peace of St. Germain Coligny became a favorite with the young king. The Admiral sought to persuade Charles IX. to make war upon Spain, and in order to establish a permanent reconciliation of the two parties, the King urged a marriage of his sister Margaret with the young prince Henry. This angered the Guises, who believed that Coligny had plotted the murder of Duke Francis of Guise, and they determined upon revenge: as Coligny was returning home one evening a musket ball shattered his arm. The Guises now allied themselves with Catharine de Medici, and her third son, Henry of Anjou, and all three agreed to destroy the Calvinistic leaders at the approaching wedding. The Queen Mother, who was opposed to



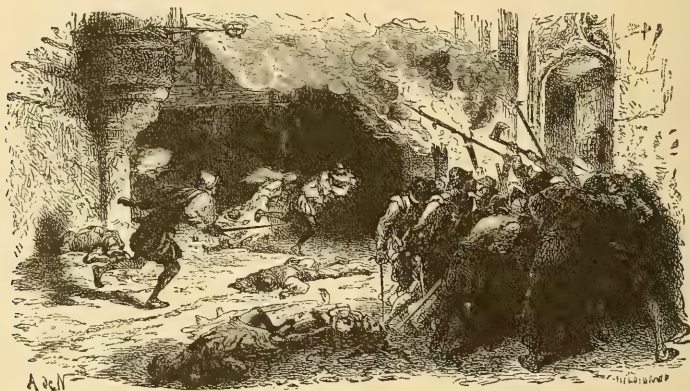


ASSASSINATION OF MARSHAL D'ANCRE. (*A. de Neuville.*) (pp. 451.)



a war with Spain, and hated the Admiral, was quite willing to have Coligny removed. This was the origin of the massacre of St. Bartholemew, on the 24th of August, 1572. The signal bell was rung at midnight; Coligny was the first sacrificed; the assassins then scattered into all parts of the city, filling the houses and streets with corpses. The butchery lasted for three whole days, and was imitated in several cities. The lowest estimate places the number of murdered Huguenots at twenty-five thousand. The King, to whom the plan was communicated just before its execution, shot with his own hand at the fugitives that fled the palace. When the Guises were called to account for the bloody deed, Charles assumed the entire responsibility, and justified the horror with a story of a Huguenot conspiracy. Many Frenchmen abandoned their country in horror and sought protection in Switzerland, in Germany, and in the Netherlands. Henry, of Navarre, saved his life by a compulsory recantation. But as soon as he was in safety, he returned to his former faith.

§ 364. Two years after the massacre, Charles IX. passed away, tormented by ter-



ST. BARTHOLEMEW'S NIGHT. (*A. de Neuville.*)

1574. rible dreams. His brother Henry, who had been for a year the elected king of Poland, escaped secretly from the rough regions of the Vistula, in order to obtain the crown of France. He was a weak and pleasure-loving prince, without seriousness and without energy. He liked to shut himself up with his favorites and his lap-dogs inside his palace, and to forget the storm that raged without. And when the fear of judgment disturbed his conscience, he sought comfort in superstitious devotion, in pilgrimages and processions, and scourgings. That he might enjoy more undisturbed the pleasures of the capital, he granted to the Huguenots, religious freedom and equal rights with the Catholics. The latter, enraged at these concessions, formed the holy league under the leadership of Henry of Guise, and in alliance with Philip II., of Spain. Priests and monks and Jesuits especially, worked zealously to obtain members for the new union. The vacillating and faithless King, now went over to the Catholic zealots, assumed the headship of the league, and abolished the religious peace. Henry III., was childless;

1584. so too was his younger brother, the Duke of Anjou. This made the Bourbon Henry of Navarre, after the death of Anjou, the nearest heir to the throne. The prospect of a Protestant king alarmed Catholic France, and gave the league new strength. The King was compelled to proclaim the extermination of heresy, and to confirm all the doings of the union. At first the intention was simply to put aside



CARDINAL LORRAINE RECEIVING THE HEAD OF COLIGNY.

the Protestant claimant of the throne, but as Henry of Guise increased in power, he reached out his own hands for the scepter, claiming to be a descendant of the Carlings, and to have a stronger claim than the ruling family. A conspiracy was formed in

1588. Paris against the freedom and the life of the King, and when Henry attempted to protect himself with Swiss troops, the people broke into insurrection. They gathered about the Duke of Guise, erected barricades in the city streets, and



attacked the royal troops. The king abandoned his capital to the adversary, and Henry of Guise was now as powerful as the ancient major domus, but this did not  
 1588. satisfy him. He convened a diet at Blois, intending to deprive the Bourbons of the throne, to exterminate Calvinism, to change the government, and to get all power into the hands of the Guises. In this crisis, King Henry III., ventured a bold step. He caused the Duke of Guise and his brother, the Cardinal Louis, to be



MURDER OF DAVID RIZZIO.

1589. assassinated, and the most influential leaders of their party to be imprisoned. This produced a terrible excitement throughout the kingdom. Paris renounced the God forsaken King: the Pope excommunicated him; revolutionary governments appeared in various parts of France, Henry III., abandoned and despised, saw no other way of safety than to ally himself with Henry of Navarre, and the Huguenots. Civil war flamed up anew, but the league was overthrown. Henry was besieging Paris and threatening to convert it into a pile of ruins, when the knife of a fanatical





ENTRANCE OF HENRY IV. INTO PARIS, MARCH 22ND., 1594. (*François Gerard.*)

monk put an end to his life. He died on the first of August, 1589, after appointing Henry of Navarre to be his successor.

§ 365. There was to be a weary struggle before Henry IV. could reach the

**Henry IV.** throne of France. Mayenne, the brother of the murdered Guise, as-

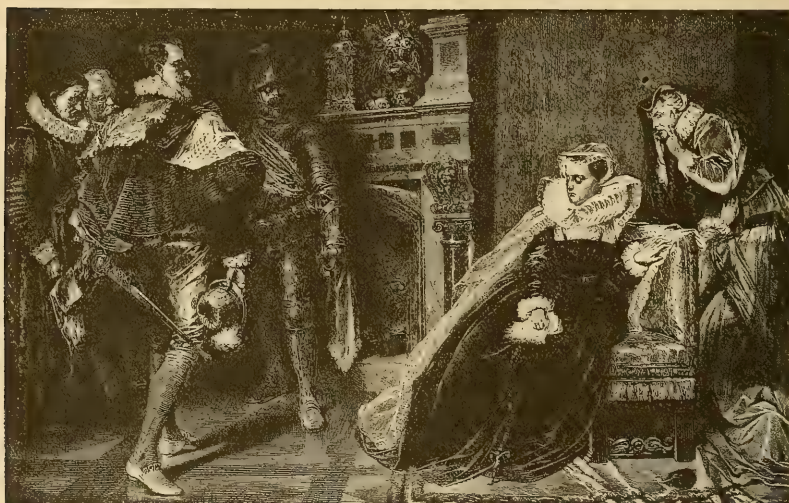
**1589-1610.** sumed the conduct of the league; Philip II. made the most of the

confusion and sent his famous general, Alexander of Parma, with an army into France. Henry won his famous victory at Ivry, and then besieged Paris. The city suffered all the horrors of starvation, but Henry was at last convinced that he could never acquire peaceful possession of the French throne by battles and victories.

**1590.** "Paris is worth a mass," he said, and entered the cathedral of St.

Denis to swear allegiance to the Catholic church. This broke the power of the

**1593.** league. Paris opened her gates, and received the messenger of peace



MARY STUART INFORMED OF HER IMPENDING EXECUTION. (*C. V. Piloty.*)

with joy. The Pope lifted the excommunication, the heads of the league made treaties with the King, and even Philip II. consented to the peace of Vervins. Henry

**1598.** having established peace at home and abroad, issued the Edict of

Nantes in which he gave to the Calvinists religious freedom, equality of civil rights, and many other advantages, such as exemption from episcopal jurisdiction, and the possession of certain strongholds. He then sought to heal the wounds of the war by encouraging agriculture, industry, and commerce. Through his friend and minister, Sully, he reorganized the administration and the system of taxation. He became exceedingly popular, but fanaticism only slumbered. As Henry was planning to establish a Christian empire in which all three confessions should be granted equal privi-

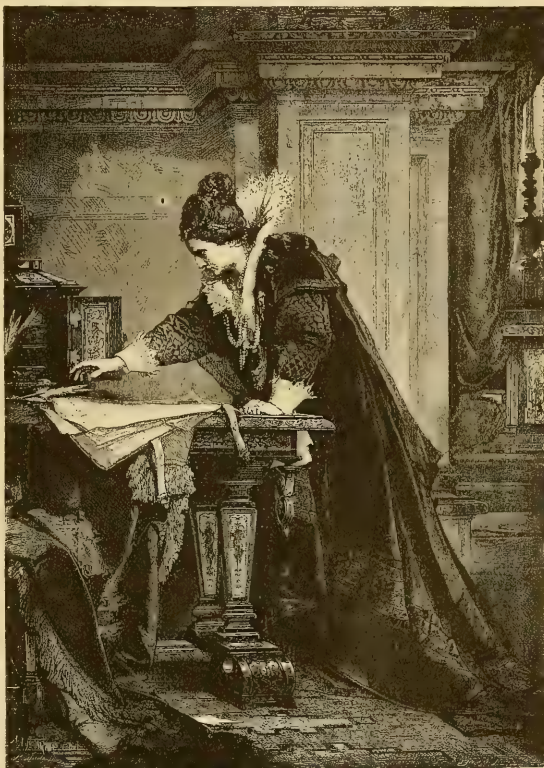


**1610.** leges, and by which the power of Austria might be broken, he was stabbed to death by the assassin Ravaillac.

*d. Elizabeth and Mary Stuart.*

§ 366. England all this while was flourishing, under Elizabeth, in commerce and industry, in navigation, agriculture and literature. The Queen op-

**1558-1603.** pressed the religious inclinations of her people, and suffered no contradiction in Parliament, but she possessed the qualities of a great ruler. Having a strong mind and a strong will, schooled by study, and by sharp experience, she saw and chose what was best for her kingdom. She was surrounded with able counsellors, among whom Lord Burleigh took the first rank. She was economical and orderly in administration, but she loved dissimulation, intrigue and deception. Her character was in sharp contrast with that of Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland. The beautiful princess had passed her youth in happiness and pleasure. She was amiable, cheerful, and full of life, though not free from wantonness and immorality, while Elizabeth was serious and jealous, tyrannical and often morose. Mary held fast to the Catholic religion and to the papacy, in the midst of a people, who rejected the mass as idolatry.



ELIZABETH SIGNING THE DEATH WARRANT. (A. Liezenmayer.)

§ 367. Her second husband was the Scottish nobleman Darnley, but he behaved so badly that the Queen encouraged the singer Rizzio from Turin, who was also her secretary. Urged on by his jealousy and by false friends, Darnley conspired with several noblemen to murder Mary's favorite before her eyes. This filled the heart of the Queen with bitterness against her husband. She separated from him

**1563.**



and gave her favor to Bothwell, a Scottish nobleman. Nor was she reconciled until Darnley fell sick; then she nursed him with great devotion. But one night during her absence, the inhabitants of Edinburgh were awakened by a terrible explosion. The

**1567.** villa of the King was shattered to pieces and Darnley's strangled corpse was found among the ruins. Bothwell was believed to be the perpetrator: yet three months later he was Mary's husband. The Scottish nobility rose in rebellion. Bothwell fled to the Hebrides, and lived a pirate's life until he was captured by the Danes. Mary was led in triumph to Edinburgh, and then imprisoned in the island castle Loch Leven, where she gave up her crown and appointed her half-brother, Mur-

**1568.** ray, regent during the minority of her son James. She escaped how-



JAMES I.

ever, recalled her abdication, gathered an army, but was conquered a second time, and would have been captured also, if she had not fled to England seeking the protection of Elizabeth.

§ 368. Elizabeth declined to see her until she proved herself guiltless of her husband's murder, and as Mary would not recognize Elizabeth as her sovereign, and consent to a trial, she was detained in England. Her presence however threatened Elizabeth's safety. The Duke of Norfolk, who sought Mary in marriage, lost first his liberty and then

**1572.** his life. The Dukes of Northumberland and Westmoreland rebelled, hoping to set Mary free and to restore the Catholic Church. But Northumberland died upon the scaffold. Mary was suspected of complicity with his designs. She was placed under the strictest guard, and all attempts of foreign courts to procure her liberty were fruitless. The troubles in Scotland and the religious wars of the continent appeared to make her imprisonment necessary. At this juncture Babington, who was supported by Spain, formed a conspiracy to murder Elizabeth, and to place Mary upon the English throne. The plot was discovered; the guilty conspirators died upon the scaffold. And as Mary was proved to have knowledge of the conspiracy, she also was found guilty, and Elizabeth was petitioned by Parliament not to interfere with the course of the law. Elizabeth signed the death warrant:

**Feb. 7, 1587.** Burleigh saw to its swift execution. Mary was beheaded in the nineteenth year of her imprisonment and the forty-fifth of her life. She died with fortitude and true to her faith. Elizabeth complained that her ministers had executed the judgment against her commands, and punished her private secretary Davison with

fine and imprisonment, because he had surrendered the death warrant to Lord Burleigh.

§ 369. The Pope and Philip II. expressed great horror when they learned of Mary's fate. The former hurled his anathema at the heretic Queen, and called upon the Catholic powers to avenge the death of Mary. The latter sent the "INVINCIBLE ARMADA" to England, expecting to subdue the islanders and the Netherlanders at the same time, and to establish a Catholic empire in the north-west of Europe. But the destruction of the Spanish fleet increased the renown of England and her queen, and laid the foundation of the marine power and commercial greatness of the British empire. Industry and colonization now began in earnest. The celebrated navigator Francis Drake and other heroes of the ocean discovered the element which Britannia was to rule. Ireland alone proved fatal to Elizabeth's enterprises. Henry VIII. had made of it a kingdom, and subjected it to the ecclesiastical laws of England. But only the British settlers shared in the Reformation: the native Irish and



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

their clergy remaining true to the papal system. Elizabeth tried to unite the island more closely in church and state to England. But she was opposed by the Earl of Tyrone, chief of a warlike clan, who obtained help from Rome and Spain. The Earl of Essex was sent by the Queen, whose favorite he was, to govern Ireland, but instead of defeating Tyrone, he made a disadvantageous treaty with him. This cost Essex the favor of the Queen, and when he entered into a plot with King James of Scotland to compel Elizabeth to name James as her successor, he was imprisoned and beheaded in the Tower. The death of her favorite and the loss of her popularity so embittered the last days of the Queen that she passed many sleepless nights tossing upon the pillows, and in the seventieth year of her life ended her unhappy existence. On her death-bed she appointed James of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart, heir to the English throne.

*c. Culture and Literature in the Century of the Reformation.*

§ 370. Civilization in the sixteenth century made rapid progress in all lands.



COPERNICUS.

Schools were improved, universities increased in number, art and literature cherished and supported. The works of antiquity, which were everywhere translated and explained, awakened new ideas and formed new tastes; the intellectual activity, that resulted from the ecclesiastical and religious conflicts, furthered general culture and intensified literary culture; the eager interest in intellectual treasures led to wonderful creations in art and science. Germany and Italy, especially, were nurseries of culture.

(1) Germany, in her numerous universities, cultivated especially the study of antiquity; and under the influence of Melancthon established the classical school, which has spread through all

*Copernicus, lands. Copernicus, of*

*1473-1543. Thorn, demonstrated*

the error of the Ptolemaic astronomy, and showed that the sun is the centre of the planetary system, and that the

earth, like the other planets, not only rotates upon its axis, but revolves around the

*Kepler, sun. John Kepler, one of the greatest thinkers of all time, investi-*  
*1571-1630. gated with the inspiration of a prophet, and the imaginative power of*

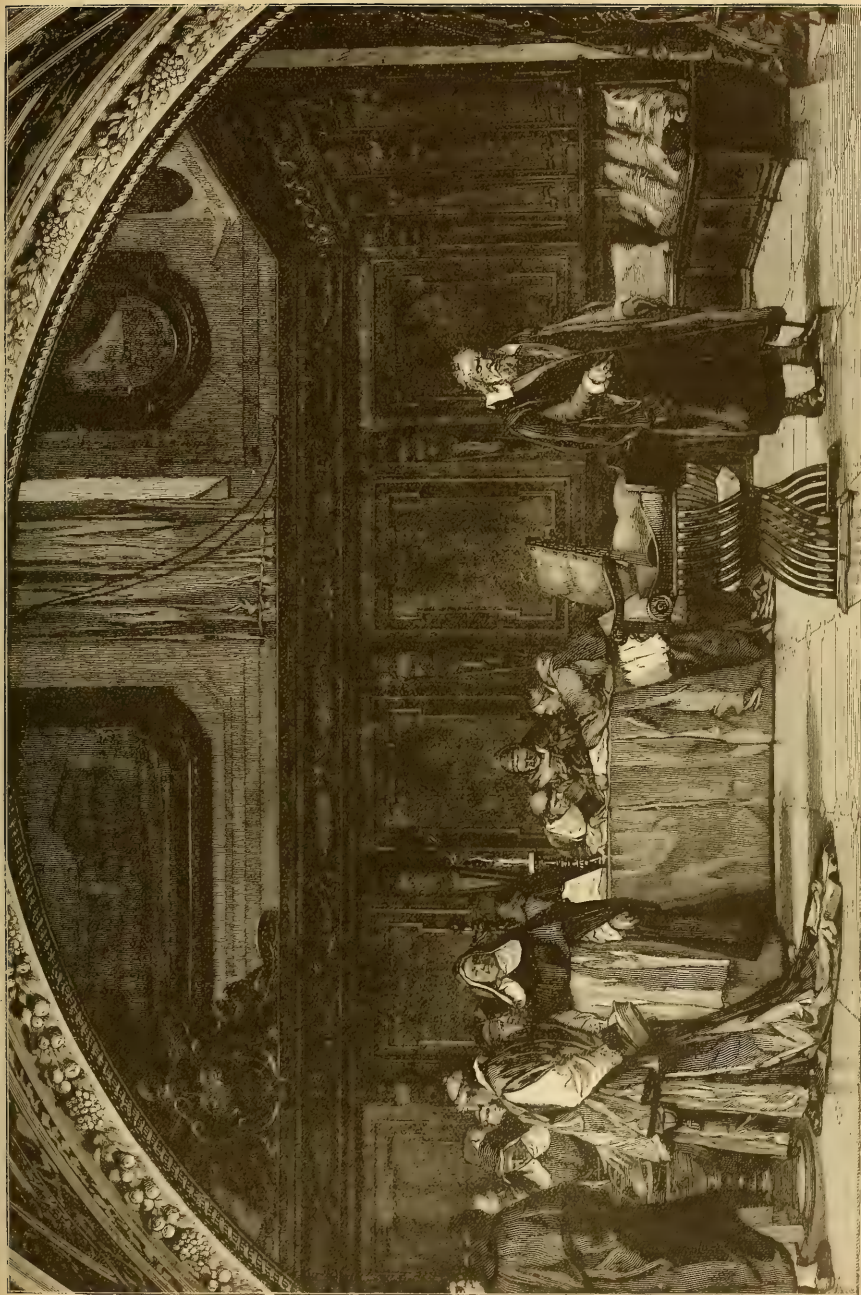
a poet, the laws of the solar system. But, misunderstood and persecuted by religious

*Galileo, bigots, he led a wretched life and struggled for the means of subsist-*

*1564-1642. ence. Galileo of Pisa, his great contemporary, fared no better. For*

he was brought before the inquisition, and compelled to abjure his belief in the motion





GALILEO BEFORE THE TRIBUNAL.

*Newton,* of the earth. What Kepler and Galileo began, was continued by the  
**1643-1727.** Englishman, Isaac Newton, who discovered the law of universal gravitation.

The Meistersingers were another product of the reformation period in Germany. Hans Sachs, a shoemaker, of Nuremberg, was the most distinguished of these poets of the people. Till Eulenspiegel was a master of burlesque and humorous lyric, while  
*Brandt,* Sebastian Brandt in his "Ship of Fools," John Fischart in his "Jesuit's  
**1458-1521.** Cap," and Thomas Murner in his "Rogue's Guild," brought satirical poetry to didactic power, chastising the faults and follies of the time with wit and righteous severity. "Reynard the Fox," the Low German epic of animal life, gives a vivid picture of court life, where flatterers rule and cunning is mightier than merit, duplicity worth more than virtue.



SIR ISAAC NEWTON.

to morality, virtue, or religion. Freedom and civic happiness are no more considered than fidelity and righteousness. Sagacity alone was valued and success alone desired. Hence the statecraft, which rejects all considerations of morality and humanity, striving  
*Ariosto,* only for dominion and for wealth is called Machiavellism. Ariosto  
**1474-1533.** wrote the charming and numerous poem of "Orlando Furioso," and  
*Tasso,* †1595. the melancholy Tasso, in his "Jerusalem Delivered," immortalized the first Crusade in beautiful diction and in harmonious lines.

(3.) Spain and Portugal also celebrated, in the sixteenth century, their golden age of art and literature. Cervantes in his humorous romance,  
*Cervantes,*  
**1547-1616.** Don Quixote, sketched the portrait of a man who utterly mistakes the actual world because of the phantoms that fill his brain, and who fights for the cause that has captured his imagination, with such energy and skill, that the name

Luther's translation of the Bible made him creator of German prose. And his spiritual songs made him the founder of German hymnology, but the latter received its more perfect form in

*Paul Gerhard,* the hymns of Paul Ger-  
**1606-1676.** hard, of Saxony, in

which the pious thought and cheerful confidence in God, that distinguished the German people, found simple and touching expression.

(2.) Italy was as noteworthy for art and literature in the sixteenth as in  
*Machiavelli,* the seventeenth cen-  
 †1527. tury. Machiavelli, of Florence, wrote his Florentine history and his "Prince," which even now excites universal admiration. In the "Prince" Machiavelli portrayed a tyrant, who founds his sovereignty and makes his will supreme law by sagacity and consistent conduct, without regard





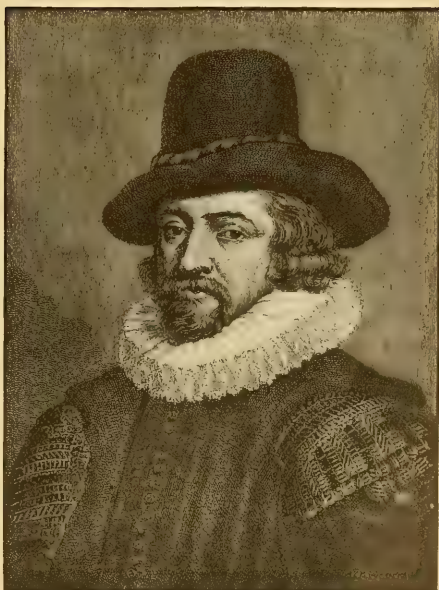
GEOFFROY CHAUCER, 1340-1400.



SIR PHILIP SIDNEY, 1554-1586.



EDWARD SPENCER, 1552-1599.



FRANCIS BACON, 1561-1626.

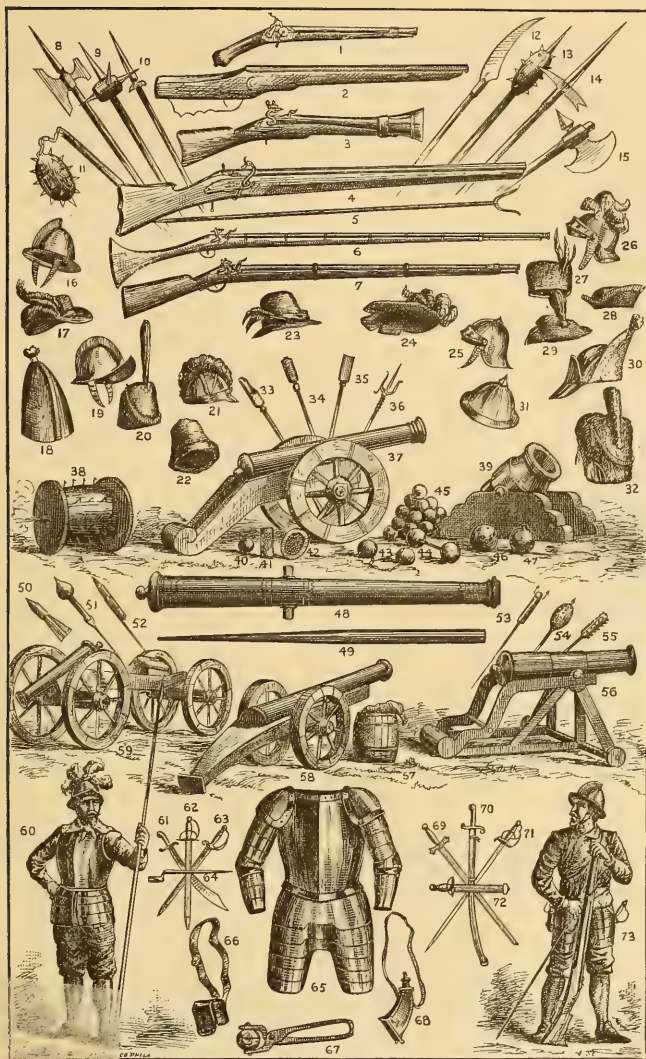


of Cervantes' hero has become a proverb in every civilized nation. Lope de Vega in his "Star of Seville," and Calderon in his "Life is a Dream," brought the dramatic poetry of Spain to its highest achievement. The Portuguese Camoens celebrated in his epic poem the glorious period of eastern discovery. This poem was saved by him from the shipwreck in which he lost all his fortune. Abandoning all else he swam with it to the shore. He became finally so poor that he had to beg for bread.

(4.) England, however, produced the greatest poet of all times, William Shakespeare, wonderful alike in tragic and in comic drama. Julius Cæsar, Henry IV., Richard III., are founded upon historic events. Macbeth, Lear, Othello, deal with the fate and tragedy of individuals. The Summer Night's Dream and the Merry Wives of Windsor are among the best known of his comedies. Hamlet has been discussed by the critics of every generation and of every country. Shakespeare's sonnets reveal a world of feeling, and give us a glimpse in his changeful life. A sovereign of speech, Shakespeare easily found words for the sublime, the pathetic, the ridiculous, and the divine.

(5.) France, in the sixteenth century, saw the romantic poetry of the Middle Ages displaced by the literature of Greece and Rome. Rabelais in his satirical romances mocked, with coarse humor and biting wit, the romantic poetry and its heroes. At the same time presenting in varied pictures the life of the state, the church and of the salon, pictures full of licentiousness and nude realities, but with a serious background. Clement Marot, a contemporary lyric poet, imitated Horace and Ovid; and Iodelle made the first attempt to introduce the drama into France. The Huguenot poet, Dübartas, wrote the "Week of Creation," which was used by Milton in his "Paradise Lost."

(6.) The fine arts made great progress in the sixteenth century, in Italy and Germany. Sculpture and painting declared their independence of architecture, and influenced by the antique, shaped themselves into freer and nobler forms. In Florence, Michael Angelo became a master in all arts. In Rome, the divine Raphael brought painting to a beauty of form and a nobility of expression that has never been equalled, both in oil paintings, like the Sistine Madonna and the Transfiguration, and in frescoes, like those in the Vatican. Titian, of Venice, founded a school noted for its coloring. Leonardo da Vinci painted the renowned "Last Supper" at Milan, and Corregio, of Parma, displayed a marvelous power to portray the inward life of men and women. Music also made great progress, especially through the creative genius of Palestrina. Germany, and the Netherlands were no less famous in these respects than Italy. Rubens, and Van Dyck, and Rembrandt, were all renowned for their coloring and boldness of representation, while Teniers touched all the forms of common life with the glory of his genius. The Italian painters strove to represent the ideal; those of the Netherlands sought to present the actual and the real; the German school, on the other hand, was distinguished by its insight into nature, and its apprehension of character. The



ARMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS, 15TH TO 18TH CENTURIES.

- |                                 |  |                                    |  |
|---------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Pistol, 18th century.        | 19. Cabasset, 15th century.              | 35. Ramrod.                        | 56. Danish Cannon, 1713.                     |
| 2. Carbine, 17th century.       | 20. Polish Hat, 18th century.            | 36. Priming Fork.                  | 57. Powder Cask.                             |
| 3. Espingole.                   | 21. Dragon Hat.                          | 37. German 12-Pounder, 1650.       | 58. Swiss Cannon, 15th century               |
| 4. Matchlock Gun.               | 22. Cossack Cap, 18th century.           | 38. Herisson.                      | 59. English Howitzer, 18th century.          |
| 5. Gun Rest.                    | 23. Swiss Infantry Hat.                  | 39. Mortar, 16th century.          | 60. Halberdier, 15th century.                |
| 6. Flintlock, 18th century.     | 24. English Cavalier Hat.                | 40. Round Shot.                    | 61, 62, 63. Swords, 15th and 16th centuries. |
| 7. Rifle.                       | 25, 26. Cavalry Casque, 15th century.    | 41. Shrapnel Shot.                 | 64. Bayonet, 18th century.                   |
| 8. Hussite Mace.                | 27. Hussar Cap, 18th century.            | 42. Fire Ball.                     | 65. Armour, 15th century.                    |
| 9. Halberd.                     | 28. Chasseur Cap, 18th century.          | 43. Chain Shot.                    | 66. Powder Flask.                            |
| 10. Cabasset, 15th century.     | 29. Sappeur Cap, 18th century.           | 44. Bar Shot.                      | 67. Bullet Mould.                            |
| 11. Hussite Mace.               | 30. Russian Grenadier Cap, 18th century. | 45. Round Shot.                    | 68. Powder Flask.                            |
| 12. Halberd.                    | 31. French Headpiece, 15th century.      | 46. Bomb Shell.                    | 69, 70, 71. Sword, 17th and 18th centuries.  |
| 13. Cossack Cap, 18th century.  | 32. Shako.                               | 47. Frussian Cannon, 18th century. | 72. Sabre.                                   |
| 14. Hussar Cap, 18th century.   | 33. Loading Shovel.                      | 48. Priming Rod.                   | 73. Spanish Arquebuser, 16th century.        |
| 15. Chasseur Cap, 18th century. | 34. Wiper.                               | 49. War Rockets.                   |  |
| 16. Sappeur Cap, 18th century.  |  | 50, 51, 52. Storming Pikes.        |  |

*L. Cranach,* pictures of Holbein, Albrecht Dürer, and Lucas Cranach, are treasured still in German galleries. Murillo, of Spain, united passionate feeling with beauty of form and of color. In music Orlando Lasso, who was born in the Netherlands, but lived in Munich, was a worthy rival of the Italian Palestrina.

### III. THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

#### 1. THE THIRTY YEARS WAR (1618-1648.)

##### § 371.

*a. Bohemia, The Palatinate, Tilly, Wallenstein.*



**F**ERDINAND I. and Maximilian II. maintained the religious peace of Augsburg with righteous impartiality. The duke of Saxe Gotha, disturbed it for a brief moment, but with this exception it endured until Rudolph II. began to rule. Rudolph was a zealous Catholic, but a poor sovereign neglected the affairs of state to study astronomy, and to collect pictures and antiquities.

He confided in the Jesuits, who strewed industriously the seeds of religious discord, and soon harvested in Austria and in the German empire, misery, confusion,

and hatred. The Archbishop Gebhard, of Cologne, passed over to the reformed church, and introduced new doctrines into his diocese. He was deposed from his seat by the Pope, placed under the ban by the empire, and deserted by the Lutherans. In Steiermark and Carinthia, the Archduke Ferdinand deprived the Protestants of their religious freedom, tore down their churches and schoolhouses.

burnt their Bibles, and drove all who refused to attend mass from the territory. The Protestant imperial city, Donauworth, was placed under imperial ban for disturbing a procession and deprived of Protestant worship. The Protestants protested in vain; the weak and indifferent Emperor gave them no relief. The Elector

Palatine therefore formed a Protestant union of princes and cities.

This was followed by the Catholic league, at the head of which was

Maximilian of Bavaria. The league formed an alliance with Spain.

The union sought the support of Henry IV., and of the Dutch. A dispute between the Count of Neuburg, and the elector of Brandenburg, over the succession to the dukedoms of Cleve and Berg, produced the first collision. A long and wasting war gave one part of the inheritance (Cleve) to the Elector of Brandenburg, and the other part to the Count of Neuburg.

Rudolph's incompetency threatened to ruin the House of Hapsburg. His

relatives compelled him therefore to give Austria and Hungary to his brother Matthias. Bohemia, for which he greatly cared, and whose capital Prague, was his residence, he secured to himself for a while by a grant of religious liberty.

But this, too, he was finally obliged to surrender to Matthias. Yet



# EUROPE

During the Thirty Years War.

by  
A. von Steinwehr.

Scale  
0 50 100 200 300 400 Miles.





the latter had as little strength and capacity as Rudolph, and as he was old and childless, he appointed his cousin, Ferdinand, to be his successor in Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia. This filled the Protestants with dismay, and when the building of Protestant churches was forbidden, the dismay broke into opposition. The defenders of Bohemia met together under the lead of Count Thurn, and called the imperial counsellors before them. And after a violent dispute, two of the most hated of the counsellors were thrown from the castle window. A new government was now proclaimed; the Jesuits were driven out, and an army was placed in the field. Count Thurn marched this army to the gates of Vienna, just as Matthias died. The deputies of the Protestants urged their way to the imperial castle, and required Ferdinand, with threats, to give them religious freedom and equality of rights with the Catholics. Ferdinand refused, in spite of his danger, from which he was rescued by the sudden appearance of his armed horsemen. Unfavorable weather and want of supplies compelled Thurn and his army to retreat.



SOLDIERS IN THE 30 YEARS WAR.

§ 373. A few months later Ferdinand II. was chosen emperor, but before he *Ferdinand II.*, could be crowned, Bohemia and Moravia declared their independence *1610-1637.* of the House of Hapsburg, and chose Frederick V., Elector of the Palatinate, and the head of the Protestant union, to be their king. His wiser friends warned the Elector of the danger involved in his acceptance. But his haughty wife, Elizabeth, a daughter of King James, of England, and his Calvinistic chaplain, persuaded his already willing mind. He accepted the Bohemian crown, hastened to his *November, 1619.* coronation at Prague, gave himself up to royal banquets and by his Calvinistic zeal soon offended both Lutherans and Hussites. Ferdinand was not so silly. He made an alliance with Maximilian of Bavaria, in which the latter agreed to send his able general, Tilly, with an army into Bohemia. In the battle of White *1620.* Mountain Frederick's army was soon put to flight. A single hour determined the fate of Bohemia. Frederick himself, bereft of self-possession and of courage, fled to the Netherlands, pursued by the imperial ban which deprived him of his hereditary possession. Ferdinand tore in pieces the charter of Bohemia with his own hand. Seventy-two of the leading Protestant noblemen were beheaded; the property of hundreds was confiscated and given to the Jesuits or other monastic orders. In a few decades the Catholics were completely triumphant, but 30,000 families abandoned Bohemia. The union, which had looked on quietly at these proceedings, was thereupon dissolved amid universal contempt.

§ 374. Tilly now marched into the Palatinate. But at this juncture three brave men entered the field to defend the cause of the Elector and of Protestantism.



These were Christian of Brunswick, Ernest of Mansfeld, and George Frederick of

**1622.** Baden. The latter two united and conquered Tilly at Wiesloch. But as the victors soon separated, Tilly attacked George Frederick in the battle of Wimpfen, and would have captured him, if his faithful guard had not covered the retreat. Tilly next attacked Christian of Brunswick, who was compelled to retreat toward the Netherlands and seek help from England. Heidelberg was the next to suffer. The library of the university was sent to Rome, and the town and vicinity ravaged by Tilly's soldiers. At the assembly of princes held

**1623.** the next year in Regensburg, Maximilian of Bavaria, received the Palatinate as his reward.

§ 375. Ferdinand was now eager to restore the Catholic church, and to root out Protestantism. This alarmed the Protestants of other countries, especially England, Hol-

**1623.** land, and Denmark. They furnished the Protestant allies with money and troops, so that

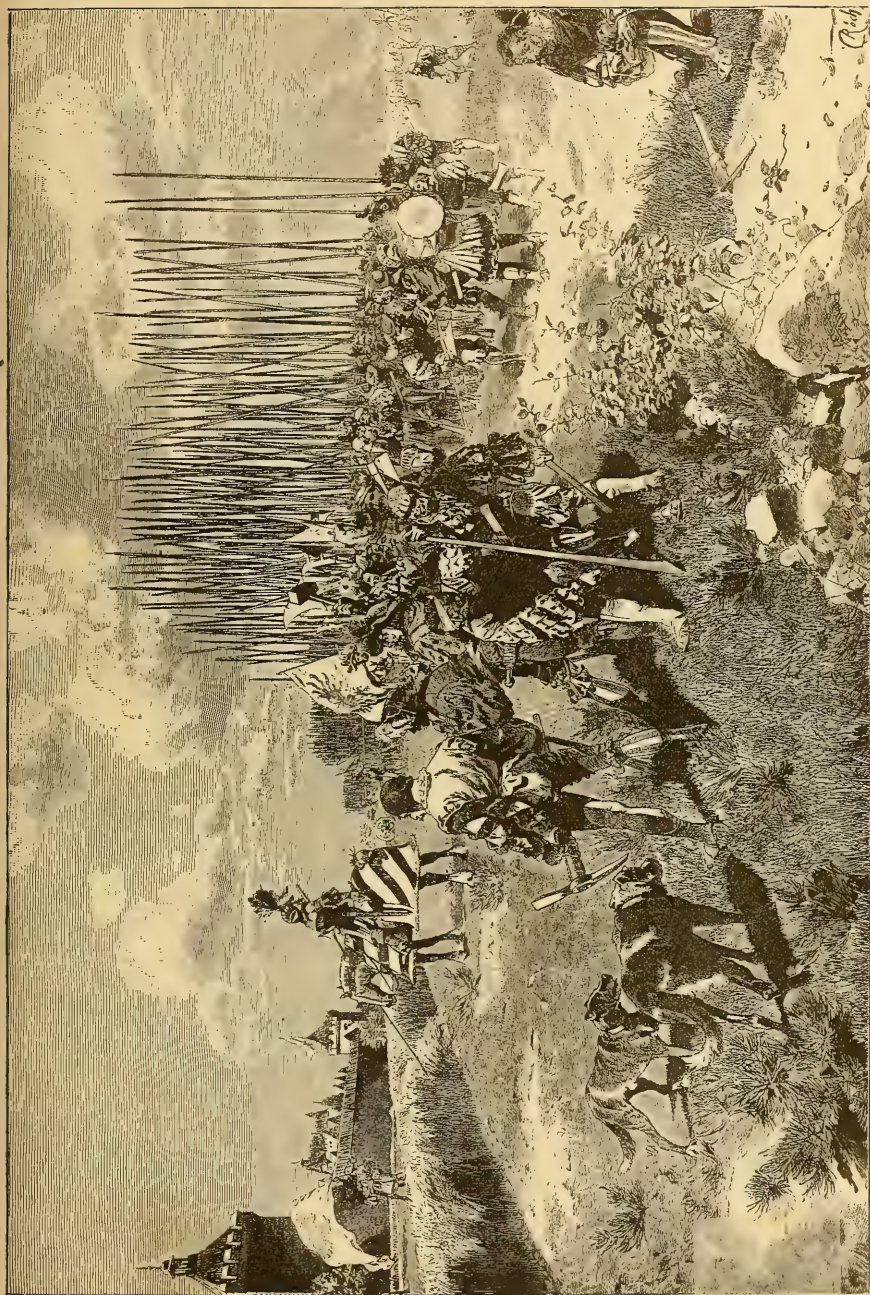
the three leaders reappeared, supported by Christian IV., of Denmark, who was enticed into the conflict, partly by religious zeal, and partly by the hope of acquiring new territory.

The Emperor now determined to raise an army of his own. To this end Albert **1625.** of Wallenstein, a Bohemian nobleman, offered his services. Immensely wealthy through inheritance, marriage and the purchase of confiscated estates, Wallenstein offered to maintain an army of fifty thousand men at his own cost, if Ferdinand would give him the absolute command, and would compensate him from the conquered territories. Ferdinand hesitated at first, but then accepted, and created him Duke of Friedland, and an imperial prince. The war now spread into North Germany. Wallenstein with his savage throngs marched along the banks of

**1626.** the Elbe and formed a junction with Tilly. Mansfeld was defeated at the Bridge of Dessau, and compelled to retreat through Hungary and along the Lower Danube, where he died. Christian of Brunswick soon followed him to the grave,



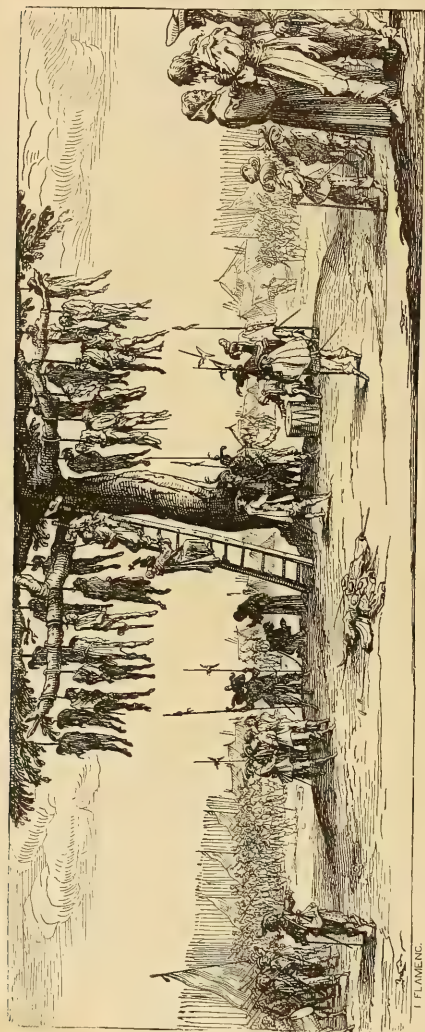
JOHN VON TZERCLAS, COUNT VON TILLY.



TILLY ASKS FOR THE SURRENDER OF MAGDEBURG.



and Christian IV. was defeated by Tilly, and driven back to Denmark. Wallenstein  
 1622. took possession of Mecklenburg; Holstein and Schleswig were devas-



DECIMATING A MUTINOUS REGIMENT.

tated by the imperial troops; in short the entire North lay vanquished at the Emperor's feet and the Protestant princes and citizens trembled at their impending ruin. In this extremity Stralsund gave

1628. a sublime example of patriotism and courage. The citizens refused to admit the imperial garrison. Wallenstein then marched his troops to the city, and swore to take it, even though it were fastened to heaven with chains. But after a ten weeks' siege, and the loss of twenty thou-

1629. sand men, he was compelled to retire. This led to a brief truce; Christian IV. received back his wasted lands but must promise to refrain from any future interference in German affairs.

§ 376. The conquered and garrisoned countries were compelled to abandon Protestant worship, and to endure the return of the Catholic church. The Em-

1629. peror issued an EDICT OF RESTITUTION, which restored to the Catholics all their confiscated property. The Calvinists were excluded from the peace, and the Catholic states were permitted to set about the conversion of their subjects. This edict filled Protestant Germany with terror, and prolonged the unhappy civil war. Many princes and cities refused to obey the Edict of Restitution, and the Emperor was compelled to maintain his soldiers under arms. But Wallenstein was no longer leader.

1630.

princes made such universal complaint of his devastations and



barbarities, and Maximilian of Bavaria demanded so emphatically the removal of his domineering rival, that Ferdinand was compelled to retire Wallenstein from his army. The latter was deep in astrological studies when he received the imperial commands. He retired to his Bohemian estates where he waited quietly until he was again necessary. Tilly assumed command and marched against Magdeburg, which



WALLENSTEIN. (*In the background, representation of his assassination.*)

had refused to recognize the Edict of Restitution. But just at this crisis appeared suddenly a foreign hero upon German soil, the Swedish king, Gustavus Adolphus.

*b. The Intervention of Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus and Wallenstein.*

§ 377. To protect Protestantism in Germany, to confirm the power of Sweden on the Baltic, and to arrest the extension of Austria into North Germany, Gustavus

Adolphus, the grandson of Gustavus Vasa, determined to interfere in the German war. He was supported by the sagacious Cardinal Richelieu, who was then supreme in France, and who watched with jealousy the increasing power of the House of Hapsburg. Directly Gustavus Adolphus landed in Pomerania the old Duke of Pomerania gave over his devastated and outraged dukedom to the Swedes. The



ROYAL COSTUMES. (1625-1640.)

the victors ordered a *Te Deum* to be sung, a cloister and a few fishing huts were all that remained of the once prosperous city.

§ 378. The plunderer of Magdeburg now turned upon Saxony. In his terror the Elector made an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, to save his land from the murderous troops of Tilly. At the battle of Leipzig the imperial troops were utterly defeated. Tilly was obliged to retreat in haste to the South, while the king of Sweden marched to the Main and the Rhine. Before the winter was over, a large part of South Germany was in the hands of Gustavus Adolphus, and he crossed the Rhine at Oppenheim where he drove back the Spaniards. In the spring he marched through Nuremberg seeking Tilly. He attacked him at the River

*April, 1632.* Lech. In the battle Tilly was mortally wounded. Augsburg was now entered by the Swedes and evangelical worship was restored. Gustavus Adolphus, accompanied by Frederick V., then marched into Bavaria and entered Munich. But a fine, and the taking away of one hundred and forty cannon, was the only punishment which the King inflicted upon the trembling Bavarians.

§ 379. Wallenstein's expected opportunity had come. The Emperor, by his prayers and his concessions, induced him to put a new army in the field. He marched against Saxony, and then into Bohemia, and after a junction with the Bavarians, marched into Franconia where the Swedes were entrenched not far from Nuremberg. The hostile armies lay here idle for months, without a battle, until the land for seven miles round was converted into a desert, and even Nuremberg was threatened with famine. Gustavus Adolphus thereupon determined to attack Wallenstein's camp. But his

piety of Gustavus and the discipline of his soldiers, who gathered twice daily to worship God, were in striking contrast with Tilly and Wallenstein, and the people consequently greeted the Swedes, and their high-minded king, everywhere as saviours and deliverers. Not so the princes. They feared the vengeance of the Emperor, and in an assembly

*1631.* at Leipzig determined to preserve neutrality. The Electors of Brandenburg and Saxony even refused the Swedes permission to march through the land, and while Gustavus Adolphus was thus delayed, Magdeburg was conquered and destroyed by

*May 20,* Tilly and Pappenheim. The unfortunate city was given over to a three days' plundering. It became the scene of horrible cruelties, and was at last reduced to ashes. The cathedral in which



DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS AT LÜTZEN. (*A. de Neuville.*) (pp. 473.)



daring soldiers were driven back by the terrible fire. The plan had to be abandoned, and the troupes of Wallenstein retreated to Saxony. The Swedes followed them, and

1632. on a foggy November day forced on the battle of Lützen, in which the Swedes were victorious, but their king was slain. Wallenstein was obliged to retreat

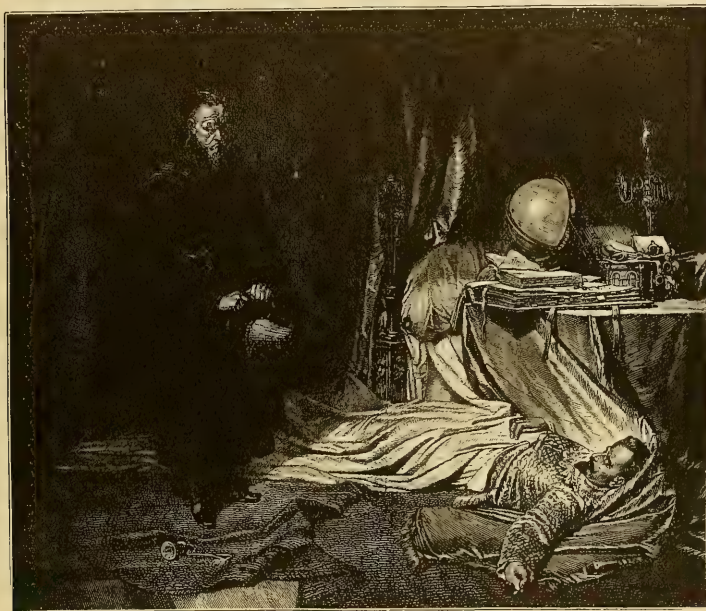


GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS. (*A. Van Dyck.*)

with his beaten army to Bohemia. The Swedes dragged the mutilated corpse of their hero king, from piles of dead, and buried him in his native soil.

§ 380. The Swedish chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern, an energetic and able man, now

assumed the conduct of the German war. A number of evangelical princes and cities, agreed in the treaty of Heilbronn, to persevere faithfully in the alliance with Sweden. The commanders of the allied armies were Bernhard of Weimar, and the Swedish general, Horn. France furnished money, and the war went on. Bavaria was chastised by the Swedes, who no longer refrained from plunder, and Silesia was so devastated by the Austrian troops that the prosperity of the land was entirely destroyed. But Wallenstein's career was nearing its end. His dilatory conduct, and his incomprehensible stay in Bohemia, were used by his enemies to his ruin. He had become so great that they were afraid in Vienna that he might make peace



DEATH OF WALLENSTEIN. (*Charles Piloty.*)

without regard to the imperial policy. He was accused of planning an alliance with the Swedes, in order to obtain for himself the throne of Bohemia. And the Emperor finally agreed to the overthrow of his too powerful commander. Treason was begun in Wallenstein's own camp; his leading generals were first won over to the imperial plan, and then Wallenstein was deposed. The latter retreated with the remnant of his army to Eger, where he might be nearer to the Swedes. But he was murdered by the Irish general Butler, and other conspirators, and with him his most faithful adherents were also put to death. His estates and those of his friends were confiscated and given to his murderers. Wallenstein was a daring, enterprising man,

Feb. 25, 1634.

born to command, reticent and severe, haughty beyond measure and consumed with ambition. As his tall form, clad in a scarlet mantle, moved through the camp, his warriors, even the stoutest of them, shuddered at sight of his gloomy and resolute face.

*c. Result of the War. Peace of Westphalia.*

§ 381. The imperial army now marched into Bavaria and Bernhard of Weimar



CARDINAL RICHELIEU. (*Ph. de Champagne.*)

*Sep. 6, 1634.* was defeated in the battle of Nordlingen. Saxony, and other states, thereupon concluded with the Emperor the peace of Prague; the Emperor withdrawing

*May, 1635.* the Edict of Restitution. Wallenstein's adherents were hunted down and put to death. But the terrible war was far from ended. Richelieu who saw that it



was a favorable time for humiliating Austria, and extending the French frontiers, promised the Swedes help in money and in men, and supported Bernhard of Weimar in his undertakings along the upper Rhine. The Swedish general Banér conquered Saxony

**1636.** and Thuringia, and converted those fruitful regions into uninhabited deserts. When Ferdinand II. sank into the grave, the German people were burdened

**Feb. 15, 1637.** with unspeakable misery. But Bernhard of Weimar was now suc-

**Ferdinand III.,** cessful, and he was about to found an independent principality upon

**1637-1657.** the shores of the Rhine, when he died suddenly in the prime of life.

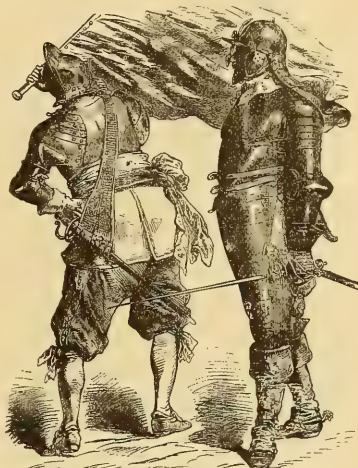
**1639.** Many suspected that he had been poisoned. The French took advantage of his death to hire his army and to occupy Alsace. The war was now carried into South Germany while the Swedes devastated once more unfortunate Bohemia.

§ 382. Banér the Swedish general died in 1641, and was succeeded by Torstenson, a talented pupil of Gustavus, who, owing to his sufferings from the gout, was carried about on a couch, and yet was noted for the astonishing rapidity of his movements. He

**1642.** defeated the imperial armies at Leipzig, invaded the Austrian dominions repeatedly, and caused Ferdinand III., to tremble for Vienna. He then appeared unexpectedly at the mouth of the Elbe occupied Holstein and Schleswig, and compelled the king of Denmark to a humiliating peace. Worn out by disease and fatigue, he surrendered his command to the brave Wrangel. The latter in union with the French general

**1647.** Turenne attacked Bavaria, put Maximilian to flight and established a truce, and was just about to enter Bohemia when the war was ended by the Peace of Westphalia.

§ 383. The Peace of Westphalia was in process of negotiation for more than **1643-1648.** five years. France acquired large possessions in Alsace, Sweden a part of Pomerania, Stettin, Wiesmar, Bremen, and other cities. Brandenburg obtained Magdeburg and Halberstadt. Bavaria was permitted to retain the electoral dignity and the upper palatinate, while the Rhine palatinate was handed over to the son of Frederick V. Switzerland and the Netherlands were recognized as independent states. The provisions of the Peace of Augsburg were confirmed and extended to Calvinists. The situation, as it existed in 1624, was to prevail touching the possession of ecclesiastical property and the exercise of the Protestant religion. Further consequences of the Thirty Years War were the following:—First, an increase in the power of the princes, expensive courts, standing armies, and high taxes: second, an ecclesiastical orthodoxy which rested not upon religious experience but upon a rigid observance of the letter of the creed: third, the ruin of commerce and of industry. The prosperity of Germany never returned. Many commercial cities were beggared; the im-



SOLDIERS. (1630-1650.)

perial cities fell behind the royal capitals; industry and wealth passed over to Holland and to England; fourth, German art and literature perished. Manners, language, and poetry were borrowed from the French, and native productions were despised. The ancient German character succumbed to foreign influences. The two most important authors of this period are Christopher of Grimmelshausen, and Philander von Moscherosch. Both found their material in the sorrows and changes of the THIRTY YEARS WAR.

*d. Sweden under Christina and Carl X. Constitutional Changes in Denmark.*

§ 384. The Swedish crown now passed to Christina, the daughter of Gustavus



NOBLEMEN. (1625-1640.)

1632. Adolphus. During her minority, an imperial council governed the realm, and made the most of their opportunity to increase the privileges and the revenues of the nobles. When the queen herself began to reign, she called to her brilliant

1644. court artists and scholars,

from all the lands of Europe, and displayed great strength of mind and character. Her love of art and science found little nourishment in the Protestant North, and she felt herself a stranger in her native country. After a reign of ten years, she abdicated in

1654. favor of her cousin Carl

Gustav, retaining for herself a life pension. Christina then left the land of her fathers, and in Innsbruck united with the Catholic church. She traveled through the Netherlands, France and Italy, and finally took up her residence in Rome. She died in

the year 1689, and was buried in the cathedral of St. Peters.

§ 385. Carl X. was a great warrior. He undertook a war of conquest against

Carl X. Poland, formed an alliance with the great elector, Frederick William,

1654-1660. of Brandenburg, freed Prussia from the overlordship of Poland, took

possession of the western territory, and would have obtained the entire kingdom,

July, 1656. after the three days' battle of Warsaw, if an invasion of the Danes had not compelled him to return to Sweden. He hastened to the mouth of the Elbe, but the Danish army made no resistance, so that Schleswig and Jutland were soon in Swedish hands, except the fortified city of Fredericia. This, however, was

1658. stormed by Wrangel, and in the middle of winter, the King marched

his army over the frozen belt to Fuenen, and a few days later to Seeland. The Danes were so astounded by the sudden appearance of the enemy, that they had no thought of a defense, and immediately sued for peace. But Carl refused their offered sacrifices, hoping to bring all three Scandinavian kingdoms under his control. But the citizens of Copenhagen made so stout a resistance, and the Dutch coming to the help of the Danes, the war was prolonged, until the sudden death of the Swedish king

changed the whole situation. The Swedish council, who conducted the government during the minority of Carl XI., concluded the Peace of Oliva with the Poles,

**1660.** and the Peace of Copenhagen, with the Danes. In both treaties, Sweden obtained great advantage. Prussia's independence of Poland was recognized, but the Danish nobility had shown such selfishness and cowardice, that the court was able to overthrow the existing constitution. The elective monarchy was changed into an hereditary, and the monarch was given absolute power. The nobility lost their former independence, and were chained to the throne by titles and orders.

**Carl XI.** In Sweden also, the power of the nobility was broken by the stern **1660-1697.** and sagacious Carl XI., who demanded back the alienated estates of the crown, and required them without mercy, although he permitted the ancient institutions to endure.

## 2. THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION AND THE EXPULSION OF THE STUARTS.

### a. *The Two First Stuarts.*

§ 386. James I., the son of Mary Stuart, was a pedantic prince, cunning, but narrow minded, and of perverted education. He had grown up amid the quarrels of Presbyterian preachers, and was especially equipped with theological erudition, and took delight in ecclesiastical disputes. It pleased him greatly to pose as a great scholar, both in speech and in writing, and he composed several books; although, as a ruler, he lacked prudence and sagacity. Lord Bacon, the most famous philosopher of his time, was his lord chancellor, but was impeached for bribery, and punished with fine, imprisonment, and disgrace. James was timid enough to love peace, and preferred quiet to the honor of his country. But he was so lavish of his favor, that he was controlled, not unfrequently, by the most unworthy favorites. The most powerful of these was George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, distinguished for his personal beauty. James had the loftiest ideas of royal authority, was convinced that it proceeded directly from God, and was unlimited, and for this opinion he sought proofs in the Old Testament. Accordingly, he hated the Presbyterian church of Scotland, because their principles made the king no more important than any other member of the congregation, and for the same reason, he loved the Episcopal church, in which the king was the head and source of all spiritual power. "No Bishop, no King," became therefore, the watchword of all the Stuarts, and the chief enterprises of the family were the introduction of episcopacy into Scotland, and the suppression of the Puritans in England.

§ 387. Three events of James' reign are especially noteworthy. The gun-powder plot, the bridal-tour of the Prince of Wales, and the growing opposition in the Parliament.



ENGLISHMAN AND FLEMING. (1640.)



James had promised toleration to the English Catholics, but the crown was hardly secure upon his head, when he began to collect from the Catholic non-conformists, a heavy poll-tax, in order to enrich his favorites, and to pay for his court festivals. This enraged the deluded Catholics. They formed a conspiracy to blow up the King and Parliament, and to change the government. A written warning, addressed to a

1605. Catholic peer, led to the discovery of the plot, and the chief culprit, Guy Fawkes, was arrested and executed. The other participants fled and stirred up a rebellion, in which the most of them perished. All the Catholics of England were then compelled to pay heavy fines, and to swear an oath of allegiance to the King.

James believed, in his pride, that his son was worthy of a king's daughter of the first



CHARLES I. (*Van Dyck.*)

degree, and, therefore, sued for the hand of the Spanish Infanta. This project was very unpopular among the English people, first because they wished no Catholic queen, and secondly because the long negotiations with Spain had prevented the king from supporting his Protestant son-in-law, Frederick V., of the Palatinate. The Pope, however, and the Spanish court gave their consent, and there seemed nothing now to prevent the marriage. But the Duke of Buckingham persuaded Prince Charles to make a journey to Madrid, and the King, who in his own youth had surprised his Danish bride in this fashion, encouraged the undertaking. They arrived in Spain under assumed names, and as soon as they were recognized, were treated with great distinction. But Buckingham's frivolity excited displeasure. He quarreled with the Spanish court, and did his utmost to prevent the marriage. Henrietta, of

France, became the wife of Charles.

Parliament had known but little freedom in the days of Elizabeth, but her talents as a ruler, and her economy kept the people satisfied. When James, however, in the consciousness of his royal almightiness, strode forward in the same path, limiting more and more the rights of Parliament, and laying export and import taxes arbitrarily upon all commodities, Lords and Commons broke into violent opposition. The King threatened and dissolved Parliament repeatedly, and arrested the boldest speakers, but all to no purpose. Each new Parliament spoke the same language, and when James at last declared that their pretended rights were only privileges, granted them by the crown,

1621. the Commons put on record a protest, in which they declared that the right to make laws and to lay taxes was an inheritance of all Englishmen, and that freedom of speech and security of person belonged to every member of Parliament. The King stormed over this insolence, tore in pieces with his own hands the leaf upon which

the protest was recorded, dissolved the Parliament, and arrested some of the deputies. But at this juncture, James was taken away, and Charles I. ascended the throne.

§ 388. The new reign began with a violent attack upon Parliament. Twice in three years was the House of Commons dissolved. A war with France and subsidies for the German Protestants caused great expenditure. The king was very angry that Parliament was so sparing in its appropriations, and would not even grant him a tonnage tax or ship money, as had been customary. But the French war was unsuccessful. English blood and English honor were shamefully squandered. The third Parliament threatened to impeach Buckingham, and the King, in order to save his favorite, signed "the petition of right," in which he secured to Parliament its ancient rights, and to every member freedom of speech, and safety of person and of property. Shortly after this, Buckingham was murdered, whereupon the king chose Thomas Wentworth, an eloquent member of the opposition party, to be his counsellor, making him Lord Strafford and viceroy of Ireland. Wentworth was a man of great eloquence, extraordinary energy, and indomitable will. He set about to strengthen the authority of the crown, and advised the King to rule without a Parliament. The money necessary for current expenses could be obtained by collecting taxes, according to existing statutes, and in addition, excise duties were levied upon wine, salt, soap, and other articles of daily use. The King, moreover, revived ancient and forgotten claims of the crown, like the ancient ship money. At the same time, Charles thought to establish more firmly the Anglican church, and to put down the Puritans and Presbyterians. His chief instrument, in this enterprise, was Laud, of London, whom he afterward appointed arch-bishop of Canterbury. Laud reconsecrated the cathedral of St. Pauls, enriched the church with pictures and decorations, enlarged and beautified the ritual, deposed the Puritan preachers, revived the court of high commission, and the star chamber, whereby all were punished who ventured to oppose his innovations. Prynne, a Puritan writer, was condemned to the pillory, to the loss of both ears, and to life long imprisonment, because he had written a big book in which he condemned dances, masquerades, and the theatre.

§ 389. These measures produced great excitement throughout the land. John Hampden, a quiet, but determined man, refused to pay the "ship money," and defended himself so successfully before the court, that the wrongfulness of the government was as clear as day. The Puritan preachers went through the land, stirring up resistance, and declaring that Laud intended to restore the Catholic church. The seeds of hatred for court and clergy took root and grew. The King, however, persisted and determined to introduce episcopacy and the prayer book into Scotland. In the cathedral at Edinboro, when worship began, according to the new form, a tumult arose, in which the crowd exclaimed, "Pope! Anti-Christ! Stone him!" Stools were thrown at the clergyman, and he was driven from the altar. "The solemn league and covenant" for the protection of pure religion and the church against papal error and delusion was renewed; the bishops were driven out, Presbyterian worship restored, and the people summoned to arms. Charles now determined to break their resistance with an army, but his troops yielded to the believing Scotch, who marched to the field, singing psalms and praying to God. The Scotch crossed into England, and the King was compelled to call a Parliament, and to seek the help of the nation.

§ 390. This Parliament is known in English history as the Long-Parliament. Hampden, Pym, Cromwell, Hollis, and other influential members, were opposed to absolute monarchy, and to episcopacy. But during their struggle against the King and the bishops, they divided among themselves. The most violent adopted gradually democratic principles, and sought to establish a republic; the more conservative desired only a reform of the existing state and church. The hostility of the new parliament to the royal wishes was soon manifest in their determination to put "grievance before supply;" and in their determination, rather to support the Scottish rebels, than



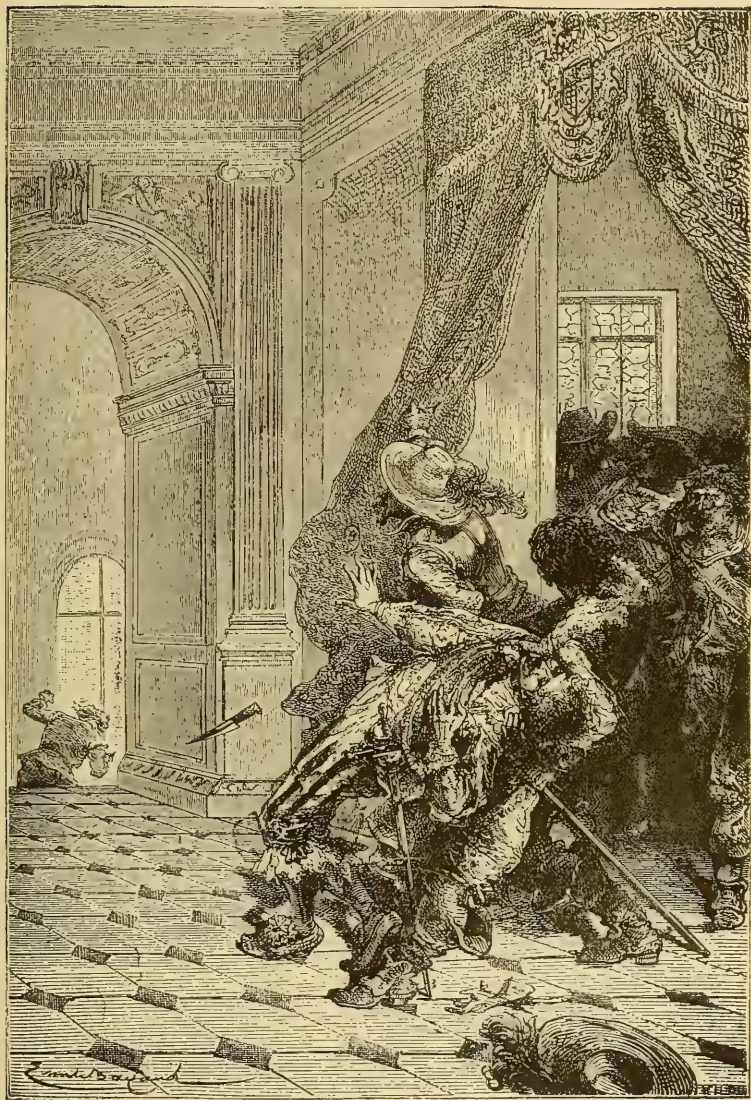
BATTLE OF MARSTON MOOR. (*Emil Bayard.*)

§ 391. Suddenly England was startled with the news that the Protestant settlers in Ireland had been attacked and murdered by the Catholic inhabitants. The Queen especially was accused of having formed a conspiracy of papists, bishops, and courtiers, for the destruction of the freedom and the faith of the Protestants. The struggle became much fiercer. Parliament became more exacting, attacking the royal authority, and demanding that all the members of the royal council, and the generals of the army should be subject to their control. The adherents of the King were known as "cavaliers," and consisted for the most part of noblemen and officers of the army; the supporters of the Parliament were nicknamed "Roundheads," from the manner in which they wore their hair. An attempt of the King to arrest five leaders of the

to furnish money for their suppression. Strafford, "the great apostate," and Arch-bishop Laud were impeached. The King conceded the demands of the House, in order to save them: Strafford defended himself for seventeen days with dignity and convincing power, and finally the impeachment proceedings were abandoned, and a "bill of attainder" substituted. This bill declared them both guilty of attempting to destroy the liberties of England. It was passed in both Houses, and signed by the King, who sacrificed his most faithful servant to appease the rage of the people. "Put not your trust in princes," exclaimed Strafford, when told of the King's conduct. Strafford bore himself with great composure

May 11, 1641. upon the scaffold; Laud, his companion in sorrow, remained in prison three years, and was then beheaded. The Court of High Commission, the Star Chamber, and the Council of the North were abolished, and the bishops were excluded from the House of Peers.





ASSASSINATION OF THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM. (*Emil Bayard.*) (pp. 483.)

opposition miscarried. Those marked for destruction escaped, and were brought back to the 'House of Commons' in triumph by the people, on the following day. The King, in a rage, retired to York, and determined upon war. The Queen fled to Hol-  
*Civil War,* land, seeking foreign help, but all continental Europe was then  
*1642-1646.* engaged with the Thirty-Years' War. Charles was without money, and



OLIVER CROMWELL.

his army consequently without supplies, while the Parliament was in possession of all the revenues and liberally supported by private contributions: families brought their silver, women their jewelry to the help of the popular cause, and the taxes and contributions that had been stubbornly refused to the King were willingly paid to the Parliament. Nevertheless the small but disciplined army of the King was greatly superior to the parliamentary troops which were commanded by the Earl of Essex.





CHARLES I. IN THE BATTLE OF NASEBY. (*Emil Bayard.*) (pp. 485.)



Prince Ruprecht, the King's nephew won two victories with the royal cavalry. In the second year of the war Hampden died, but Oliver Cromwell, an earnest Puritan, formed his regiment of Ironsides from his God-fearing friends, and with these irresistible soldiers he soon changed the face of affairs. The battle of Marston Moor **July 2, 1644.** was lost by Ruprecht's impetuosity. Cromwell's gloomy but determined squadrons did not yield an inch. Cromwell's name soon acquired great importance, and the Puritans seized their opportunity to remove the Book of Common Prayer from the church service, and to replace the Episcopal church government by the Presbyterian system of John Calvin. Pictures, organs, and decorations disappeared from the churches, the painted windows were broken, the monuments destroyed and festivals prohibited.

§ 392. But discord soon prevailed in the camp of the victors. The Independents were dissatisfied with Presbyterian church government. They desired the complete independence of each congregation in religious matters, and were unwilling to recognize the decrees of the synods as universal laws. The moderate Puritans or Presbyterians, and the Radicals or Independents were now involved in violent quarrels. The

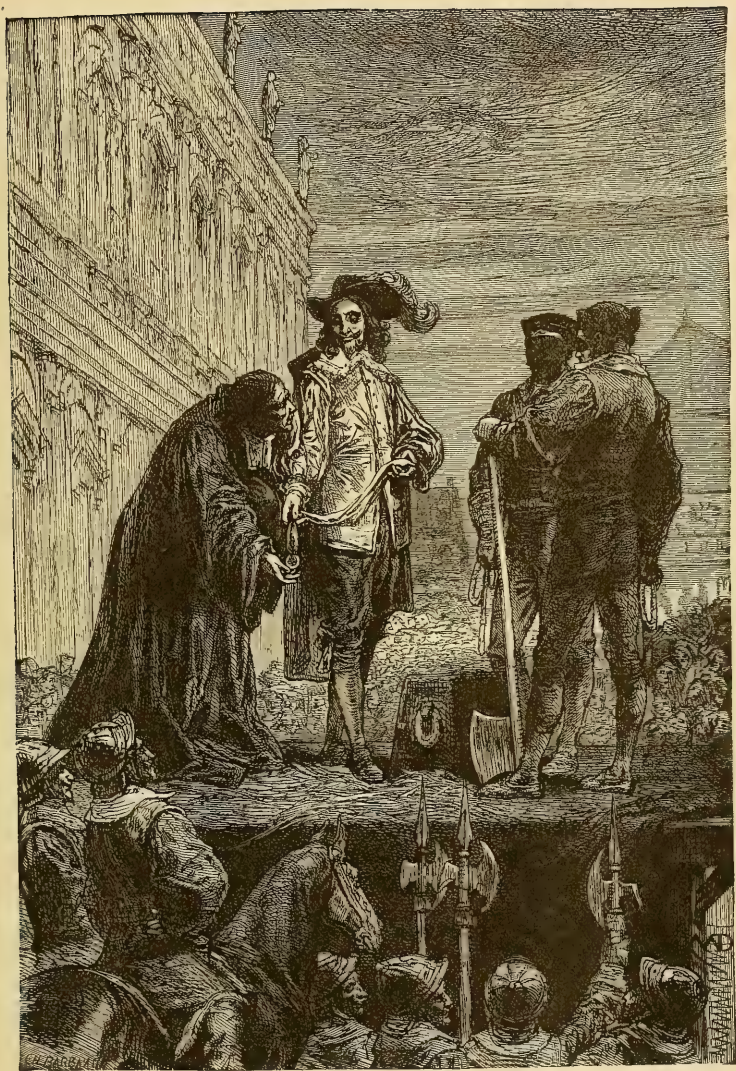
**Feb. 1645.** latter succeeded in passing the *self-denying act* according\* to which no member of either House could hold office in the army or in the state. This compelled Essex to give up his command, and Fairfax a talented officer was now placed at the head of the Parliamentary army. But Cromwell was the real commander, and also the head of the Independents. He had been one of the most earnest supporters of the self-denying act, and proceeded to the army to place his resignation in the hands of Fairfax. But Fairfax declared to Parliament that Cromwell was indispensable; he alone could lead the cavalry, for where he with his Ironsides fought in the name of the Lord, there was victory. Parliament consented: the civil war waged with increasing

**June 14, 1645.** bitterness. But the battle of Naseby destroyed the last hope of King Charles. He retreated with a remnant of his army to Oxford. Cromwell and Fairfax were preparing to besiege the town when the King with two companions escaped in disguise to the Scottish camp, hoping to find fidelity and allegiance among his fellow countrymen. But they held him under the strictest guard, compelled him to listen to the long sermons of their preachers, and when it was found impossible to induce the King to subscribe to the solemn league and Covenant they sold him to commissioners of Parliament, by whom he was imprisoned in a strong castle.

§ 393. The rupture between the Presbyterian and the Independents, now made itself distinctly felt. The former controlled Parliament, the latter the army. Cromwell kept his plans adroitly concealed. While he was playing the part of the mediator, a Puritan colonel with a squadron of cavalry carried off the imprisoned King and

**June 1647.** brought him to the army. Cromwell then marched to London in order to overawe Parliament. Charles meanwhile escaped to the Isle of Wight and for a while Presbyterians and Independents both struggled to bring him over to their side and to make peace with him separately. But Charles trusting to foreign aid, behaved ambiguously and treacherously and thereby lost his last opportunity for a peaceful solution of his troubles. The army at the instance of Cromwell, seized the person of the King and brought him to a lonely castle on the sea-coast. Colonel Pride under the same inspiration, surrounded the House of Commons with his troops and carried off

**Dec., 1648.** eighty-one of the Presbyterian members. Pride's Purge, as it is called,



EXECUTION OF CHARLES I. (*C. Maillard.*)

(*pp. 487.*)

being completed. Cromwell occupied the royal apartments in White Hall, for he was now lord and master, and the Rump Parliament, consisting of Independents, was his willing instrument. An extraordinary tribunal was created, before which the King was accused of treason, because he had carried on war against Parliament: Charles Stuart was arraigned four times and condemned to death as traitor, murderer and enemy of his country. Three days were given him to prepare for his death and to take leave of his children. He was then led to White Hall where he was beheaded. An enormous crowd looked on silently at the horrible tragedy. Not until the executioner seized the

*Jan. 30, 1649.* bloody head by the hair and held it up exclaiming "Behold the head of a traitor!" did the people give expression to their sorrow by a hollow moan.

*b. Oliver Cromwell. (1649—1658.)*

§ 394. The news of the King's death created a terrible excitement in Scotland



JOHN MILTON.

and in Ireland. The Prince of Wales, then residing in Holland, was called into Scotland, and proclaimed king as Charles II., although he was first required to sign the Covenant

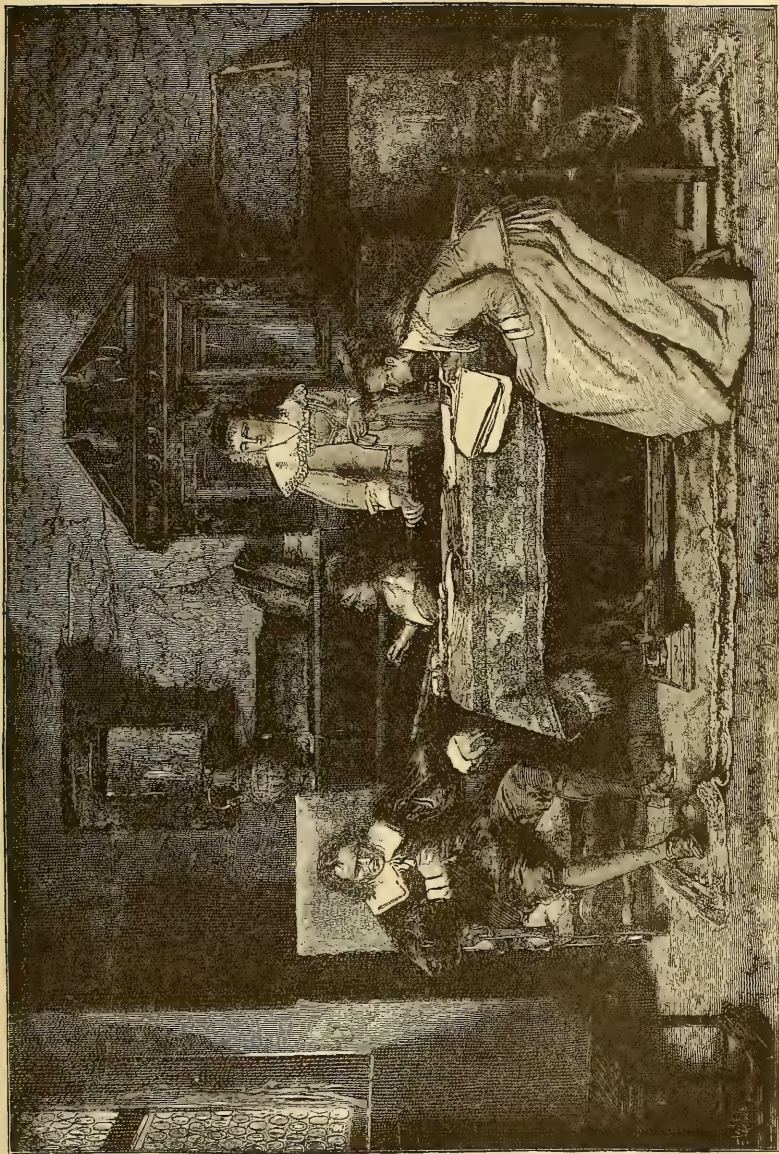
*1650.*

and to join the Presbyterian church. Ireland also acknowledged the new King and took up arms in his favor. Thereupon Cromwell who had erected in England a republican government in which Milton, the blind composer of "Paradise Lost," had a part, marched against the disobedient island. His way was through blood and over corpses, but it led to victory. And when he left the country to carry his sword into Scotland other republican leaders followed in his footsteps. The insurrection was suppressed in three years, but at the end of that time Ireland was depopulated, or inhabited by beggars. In Scotland also the republicans were victorious. The Scotch army was so

well intrenched that Cromwell could not reach them. Hunger and disease so diminished his forces that he was thinking to retreat. But the preachers in the Scottish army grieved at the war-like spirit and the good cheer of the King persuaded the Scottish commander to assume the aggressive. When Cromwell saw the oncoming Presbyterian army, he exclaimed, "The Lord has delivered them into our hands!" The battle of Dunbar decided against the Scots, Cromwell con-

*Sept. 3, 1650.* quered Edinboro and marched into the heart of Scotland. The Lord of Hosts, who was invoked by both Presbyterians and Independents, was with the strong





MILTON DICTATING "PARADISE LOST" TO HIS DAUGHTERS. (*M. Monkacsy.*)

and brave battalions. Suddenly now Charles entered upon a daring enterprise. He marched with his troops across the English frontiers, and called to his support the adherents of the kingdom. But very few answered, and on the anniversary of the battle

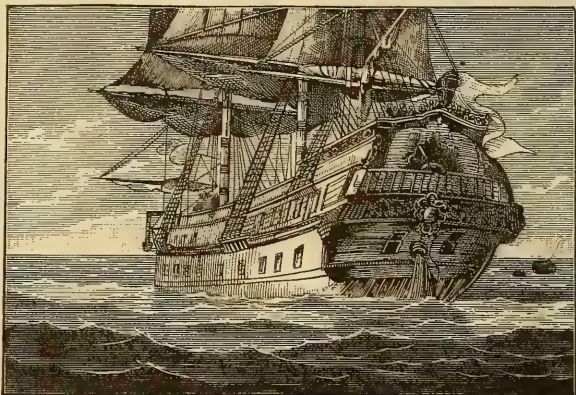
*Sept. 3, 1651.* of Dunbar the royal army was utterly defeated at Worcester. Charles became a homeless fugitive upon whose head Parliament placed a price. Amid a thousand dangers he escaped in disguise to France, and Scotland was reduced to subjection by the Republican general, Monk. The Commonwealth now became involved in a war with Holland. In this they were as victorious by sea as they had been hitherto by land. The Dutch admirals, Tromp and De Ruyter, distinguished themselves by their intrepidity and skill, but Admiral Blake and General Monk carried off the victory. The Dutch were obliged to accept a disgraceful peace, while England passed her navigation acts, according to which foreigners could only bring their own products in their own ships to England. This gave to English commerce a new impulse at the cost of the trading Dutch.

§ 395. Cromwell meanwhile had quarreled with the House of Commons, and had determined to dissolve the Long Parliament. Surrounding the house with troops, he entered the hall, delivered an exciting speech and drove the members present from the

*April 1653.* room with the help of his soldiers, crying to the one "Thou drunkard," to another,

"Blasphemer" and to a third "Adulterer." A council of state presided over by Cromwell then undertook the creation of a new Parliament. Lists of God-fearing people in the various districts were made out, and from these representatives from the three kingdoms were chosen. This assembly was called in mockery, "The Barebones Parliament," from the name of one of its members, the leather dealer Praise God Barebones. The biblical baptismal names of most of its members were significant of their religious feelings. (Habbakuk, Ezekiel, Slaysin, Stand-fast-in-the faith.) But Cromwell could not get along so easily with these remarkable people as he had hoped, and as they wished to introduce several drastic laws which would have produced great changes, he availed himself of the public discontent to dissolve the "Barebones Parliament" with his soldiers. General Lambert now sketched a new

*Dec. 1653.* constitution, which was adopted. A Parliament of four hundred members constituted the legislative power. Cromwell, as Lord Protector, possessed the executive authority and the command of the army and navy. As Protector, Cromwell



DUTCH MAN OF WAR, SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.



ruled with strength and renown. His strong will and his great ability as a ruler made him respected abroad; his pure home and his simple manner of life created confidence among his own people. Yet there were many to envy and to oppose him, republicans as well as royalists; and these embittered the evening of his life and prevented a quiet continuance of his authority. His last days were full of suspicions and of fear, for he lived always in the shadow of assassination. He died on the 3rd of



CHARLES II.

*Sept. 3, 1658.* Sept. 1658, the anniversary day of his victories at Dunbar and Worcester.

§ 396. Richard Cromwell, the Protector's son, was too weak to maintain his inherited dignity of Lord-Protector. Accordingly three powers soon confronted each other, the Protector, the Parliament and the army. The military power under Monk

*April 1659.* and Lambert, soon conquered. Parliament was dissolved, the old Rump Parliament convened again, and Richard Cromwell compelled to abdicate. But



the Rump Parliament was soon forced to yield to the soldiers, and a committee of safety, under the lead of Lambert, undertook the conduct of affairs. Men gradually began to feel that nothing but the restoration of the monarchy would re-establish civil order. And General Monk entered into negotiations with Charles Stuart, then living in the Netherlands, though carefully concealing his purpose and his plans. He arrested Lambert, dissolved the committee of safety, and convened a new Parliament. The latter, consisting mostly of royalists, arranged with Monk the restoration of the Stuarts. Pardon and liberty of conscience were the only concessions that Charles was

**May 29, 1660.** required to make, in order to enter triumphantly into London, where he was received with the shouts of the people. But even these conditions he did not fulfill. The regicides, those who had taken part in the trial of Charles I., were sentenced to death, and ten of them were executed. But this triumph of the royalists was greatly diminished by the steadfastness with which the regicide Puritans maintained their principles. Cromwell's corpse was taken from the grave and hanged on a gallows. The Episcopal church was restored and the Presbyterian clergy once more deprived of their livings.

*c. The two Last Stuarts—Charles II., (1660-1685.) James II., (1685-1688.)*

§ 397. The reign of the frivolous and licentious Charles II. was a fatal period for England. Neither the ruin of his father, nor his own trials instructed him or gave him warning. The Plague and the Fire might destroy two-thirds of London, and fill

**1665.** all hearts with sorrow, but the royal court lived merrily. As debts increased, and money became scarce, and Parliament refused to be generous, Charles sold Louis XIV., of France the honor and the welfare of his country and his own religion. At that time it was counted, especially in France, a sign of culture to pass over from the Protestant to the Catholic church. This fashion found imitators in England, also. The Duke of York the King's brother, made a public profession of the Catholic religion, and Charles was himself a Catholic in heart, although he held outwardly to the English Church, and showed only at his death his real conviction by taking the sacraments from a Catholic priest. But the people adhered to the faith of their fathers. They ascribed the great fire to the Catholics, and immortalized this

**1673.** charge on a monument: they forced Parliament to pass the TEST ACT according to which only members of the English Church and confessors of Protestant doctrine could be members of Parliament, officers of the state, or hold commissions in the army. As long as Clarendon, the historian of the English rebellion, was at the

**1662.** head of the ministry, the King was moderate and law-abiding. But when Clarendon fell into disgrace and became an exile, Charles allowed himself all manner of arbitrary and illegal conduct. He formed a ministry of talented and unprincipled statesmen known as the Cabal, which conducted the government according to the King's wish without regard to the rights of the people. Bribery ceased to be disgraceful when the King himself received annuities from Louis XIV., for supporting the French in their war against Holland. A new conflict arose between King and Parliament. The more the King sought to be absolute, the more the Parliament sought to maintain the rights of the people and the religion of the country. They even demanded the exclusion of the Duke of York from the royal succession, and Charles was compelled to send his brother away, and to form a new ministry in which the Earl of

**1679.** Shaftesbury was prime minister. Under his administration the Habeas Corpus Act, the sacred law of personal freedom, was brought into being. According to this law, no one may be arrested without a written warrant stating the grounds for the arrest, and every prisoner must have a judicial hearing within three days of his taking into custody. The two political parties of Tories and Whigs originated in these conflicts. The Whigs (Liberals) regarded the state constitution as a contract between the king and the nation, and demanded for the nation in case of its violation the right of active resistance. The Tories (Conservatives) denied that the royal authority proceeded from the people, and required from the subjects a passive obedience. During the last years of Charles II., the Tories acquired a majority because the



JAMES II.

Court took advantage of a conspiracy against the life of the King and of his brother to destroy the chiefs of the Whig party. Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney, two of the noblest and best-beloved men in the realm, died upon the scaffold. Shaftesbury fled

**1685.** to Holland, the Duke of York re-entered into all his rights and offices, and when Charles died without lawful heir he ascended the English throne as James II.

§ 398. James II. was **James II.,** hardly seated **1685-1688.** upon the throne when Monmouth, the natural son of his brother Charles, sought with the help of the Whigs to deprive him of his kingdom. The attempt miscarried. Monmouth died

upon the scaffold, and his adherents and defenders were prosecuted with terrible cruelty. The name of Judge Jeffries, who traveled through the counties with his troops of executioners, is written in bloody letters in the annals of England. His easy victory and the fear of the people created in the King the hope of restoring the Catholic church. He made the hated Jeffries Lord Chancellor, gave many offices and military commissions to Roman Catholics, and to those who had recently passed over to Catholicism, and intended by an edict of toleration to abolish the test acts. But Parliament would not consent to the edict of toleration. James therefore declared that the crown could dispense with the law. The English people for a time made no resistance to the King, hoping for speedy relief since the aged monarch had no male children and his two daughters were married to Protestant princes; the elder, Mary.

to William of Orange, and the younger, Anna, to a Danish prince. But the unexpected birth of a Prince of Wales destroyed this hope, and the people determined to help themselves with the assistance of William of Orange. Scores of dissatisfied Britons passed over to the Hague. The Whigs made an alliance with William and promised him the help of the Protestant nation. James did not perceive the storm that had gathered about his head, until William with his army landed on the British coast. The King appealed in vain to his army and his people, and promised the abolition of his unconstitutional measures. The ground on which he stood was undermined with treason, with hypocrisy and perjury. For the Stuarts had taught the nation little else. A part of the army went over to William. The voice of the people spoke against James. The King thereupon sent his wife with the Prince to France, **Dec. 1688.** threw the royal seal into the Thames, and fled from the land of his fathers. He lived for the future in St. Germain supported by a pension from Louis XIV.

§ 399. The flight of James enabled the English people to declare the throne vacant. They excluded the Catholic line of the Stuarts from the succession, and gave the crown to William and Mary, but instructed by past events they established in



FRENCH NOBILITY IN COURT COSTUME.  
(17th Century.)

**Feb. 1689.** the Bill of Rights the ancient privileges of the people, without however attempting to undermine the royal authority. The Scotch recognized the new order, and received back their Presbyterian system. But the Catholic Irish supported by France and by James II., were not subdued until the bloody battle of the Boyne, where the aged Marshal Schomberg led the forces of William against King James himself. After the death of Mary, William reigned a short period alone, but he died childless in early manhood, and James II., did not long

**Anne,** survive him. Mary's sister

**1702-1714.** Anne now became the Queen of England, and during her reign Scotland

and England were united so that Scottish representatives voted in the English Parliament. The Scottish Parliament was abolished, but the Scottish judicial system

**1707.** and the Scotch law were left in force. Anne died without issue. She survived her husband and all her children, and after her death the English crown fell to George the Elector of Hanover, the grandson of Elizabeth, wife of the unfortunate Frederick V., so conspicuous at the beginning of the Thirty Years War. Two attempts of the Stuarts to overthrow the House of Hanover, and to get possession of the English throne ended in disaster.

### 8. THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

a. *Richelieu and Mazarin.*

§ 400. When Henry IV. was murdered in 1610, his son Louis XIII., was but





CINQ MARS AND DE THOU LED TO EXECUTION. (*A. de Neville.*) (pp. 495.)

**Louis XIII.** nine years old. During this minority, his mother, Marie de Medici  
**1610-1643.** was regent, and her Court was filled with Italian favorites who enriched themselves with French property, and offended by their insolence the national pride. The French nobility took arms and filled the kingdom with insurrection. When Louis XIII. assumed the government, he permitted the foreign favorites to be  
**1612.** murdered and executed, and even banished his mother from the court. But the people were not a whit better off. The new favorites were no more virtuous nor talented than the old. Hence the nobles of the realm and the injured Huguenots rose once more against the government and plunged the land into confusion. This gloomy condition of affairs did not come to an end until the Cardinal Richelieu entered  
**1624.** the royal council, and began to exercise an almost absolute authority.



CONDE.

Yet the King never loved him, the Queen and nobility intrigued continually to accomplish his overthrow, cabals and conspiracies were constantly created to destroy him. But the greatness of his intellect conquered all obstacles, and he worked steadfastly to increase the power of France abroad, and to strengthen the power of the kingdom at home. To accomplish the first he sought to weaken the House of Hapsburg, and entered into alliances with the enemies of the Emperor in Germany and in Italy. He kept alive the Thirty Years War, although he oppressed the Huguenots under his own authority. He broke the power of the nobility and of the bureaucracy, and overcame the Huguenots, who in the south and west of France had acquired an almost independent position,

with their fortresses, their militia and their great privileges. He conquered in three wars the most important of the Huguenot cities, and deprived them of their fortifications. He then besieged Rochelle for four months, and at last captured this bulwark

**1629.** of the Calvinists, robbed them of their political privileges and their independence, but granted them religious freedom and equal rights with Catholic subjects. This disarming of the Huguenots took from the rebellious grandees, their strongest support; as a consequence they soon succumbed to the power of the Cardinal. The boldest of them were executed or exiled: even the Queen mother and her second son, the Duke of Orleans, were obliged to leave the country and the Duke of Mont-







morency, who belonged to one of the most renowned families of France died by the hand of the headsman. A like fate destroyed the Count of Cinq Mars, who formed with the Queen and many nobles a conspiracy against the mighty Richelieu. The Capuchin Father Joseph, a man of great intelligence and diplomatic skill, was the Cardinal's chief agent at home and abroad. The French Parliaments which laid claim to a peculiar sovereignty, were supplanted by extraordinary courts of justice. The officers in the province were weakened and limited by the appointment of royal inspectors, who were dependent only upon the government.

§ 401. In the year 1642 Richelieu died, hated and feared by the nobility and the people, but admired by many contemporaries and by posterity. Louis XIII., a Prince without virtues and without crimes, dependent alike upon his favorites and his foes, soon followed him to the grave. Anna of Austria, the haughty domineering sister of the King of Spain, now became regent. She gave her confidence to the Italian Mazarin, the disciple of Richelieu, and consequently found violent opposition among the nobility, and in the Parliament which sought to recover its former power and position. The people longing to escape the burden of taxation, and led by the brilliant Cardinal De Retz supported the opposition, in order to drive Mazarin from the court, and to compel the adoption of a new system. This led to the

1648-1653. violent civil war known as the war of the Fronde. Mazarin was compelled to leave the country, but the confidence of the Queen was so unshaken, that he ruled France from Cologne as unconditionally as he had ruled it in Paris. His exile moreover was of short duration. Louis XIV. reached his majority in 1651. Turenne the leader of the royal troops conquered his adversary, the great Condé, in the suburbs of Paris, and Mazarin returned triumphant, proclaiming by his return the victory of absolute monarchy. For six years longer Mazarin enjoyed the respect of France and of Europe. Cardinal De Retz was obliged to keep away from France, first however atoning for his rebellion in the dungeon of Vincennes. Condé after brave but fruitless struggles, sought safety in Spain but was recalled by the young King and granted back his estates. Mazarin's nieces were endowed with French wealth and married to conspicuous noblemen. Parliament abandoned its resistance, after the King appeared before them in hunting costume and whip in hand, demanding their obedience with the declaration "I am the state" ("L'etat c'est moi"). The peace of



NOBLEMAN AND OFFICER. (17th Century.)

Nov. 7, 1659. the Pyrenees between France and Spain was the last work of Mazarin. He left behind him an immense fortune, a valuable library and many art treasures, splendid palaces and gardens. His death came opportunely, for Louis was beginning to grow weary of him and longing to take the reins of government into his own hands.

*b. Louis XIV. and His Wars of Conquest.*

§ 402. After Mazarin's death, Louis XIV. appointed no prime minister, but surrounded himself with men who accomplished only his will, and had no other aim than to increase the renown and the splendor of their King. In his choice of these men, Louis displayed the insight of a great ruler. Colbert was the great promoter of French industry and commerce, and his generals Turenne, Condé, and Vauban exceeded in talent, knowledge and skill, the statesmen and warriors of all other countries, as much as Louis XIV. himself excelled in kingly authority and the qualities of a statesman all princes of his time. The age of Louis XIV. is the golden age of the French monarchy, and the court of Versailles, where the royal residence was established, was everywhere praised and admired as a model of good taste and of fine culture. But, as the King was chiefly concerned with his own pleasure and renown, his government became the grave of freedom, of morality,



LOUIS XIV AT THE AGE OF 41.

and of manly character. Court favor was the aim of all effort, and flattery was the surest road by which to acquire it. Virtue and merit found at the last but little recognition.

§ 403. Louis XIV. wished to cover his name with the glory of war, and at the same time to increase the territory of his kingdom. The death of the Spanish king, Philip IV., gave him the opportunity to set up a claim to the throne, and to invade the Spanish Netherlands. An alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden compelled him to shorten the campaign, and to give up the

greater part of the conquered territory. Yet a number of Flemish cities were annexed to France, and converted by Vauban into invincible fortresses. As the victorious course of the haughty King had been arrested principally by the exertions of Holland, Holland was made to feel his revenge. He brought over Sweden to his side, purchased the friend-



OFFICER AND MUSQUETEER OF THE FRENCH GUARD.

ship of the English king by annuities and mistresses, and made an alliance with the Elector of Cologne and the Bishop of Münster. He then began a second war which was directed at first against Holland, but which lasted seven years and involved nearly all the European states. The French army marched rapidly into

*War With* the heart of  
*Holland.* Holland.

**1672-1679.** The leaders of the republic had paid more attention to their navy than to their army, and their great cities fell almost undefended into the hands of their enemies. French dragoons approached within ten miles of the capital. The frightened Dutch begged humbly for peace but were not heard. But while the French army was besieging the Dutch fortresses, the ruling party, to whom the whole calamity was ascribed, were overthrown by the popular party of Orange. John and Cornelius De Witt were murdered,

**1672.** and the government transferred to the soldier and states-

*William III.* man, Wil-

**1672-1702.** liam III., of Orange. This able general immediately awakened courage and patriotic enthusiasm among the Dutch. They broke down their dikes,



CAPTURE OF AUSTRIAN BATTERIES AT LANDAU. (*Vierge.*)

and made their inundated land inaccessible to the French. The walls of Groningen defied the attacks of the enemy, and the daring march of the French across the frozen waters to attack Amsterdam was suddenly arrested by a thaw. This saved Holland: for now the great Elector of Brandenburg, Frederick William, came to the rescue and induced the Emperor Leopold to enter the war. The French were compelled to divide





THE GREAT ELECTOR AT FEIRBELLIN.

1674. their forces and to send their main army along the Rhine. The Spaniards also joined the alliance against France.

§ 404. But the strength of the French increased with the number of their foes. Turenne devastated the Palatinate, then crossed the Rhine and ravaged Franconia. The German princes were disunited. The Austrian minister of war was in the pay of the French king and betrayed the plan of the campaign to the enemy. The Austrian generals were incompetent. If the Great Elector had not saved the honor of Germany the triumph of France would have been complete. Louis XIV. had induced the Swedes to invade Brandenburg, but before the Swedes were prepared for an attack,

June 28, 1675. the energetic Frederick William broke in upon them, and in the battle of Fehrbellin inflicted upon Sweden a crushing defeat. This battle was the beginning of the greatness of Prussia. A month later Turenne, the greatest general of his time,

July 27. was killed at Sassbach, and the French compelled to re-cross the Rhine. The war lasted three years longer and was especially destructive to the lands along the Moselle and the Saar. When, however, the English Parliament required their king to withdraw from the French-alliance

and to support the Dutch, Louis determined to bring the war to an end. In the peace of Nym-

1679. wegen the Dutch recovered all their lost lands and cities. Spain however, was required to give up the Franche Comté and many fortified places. The German Empire lost the city of Freiburg and the dukedom of Lorraine, and the Great Elector was compelled to surrender to Sweden the territories and the cities in Pomerania, that he had conquered with such difficulty. The high-minded prince yielded to the hard necessity, with the prophecy that an avenger would proceed from his loins.

§ 405. The timid submission of the German princes increased the pride and the greed of Louis XIV. He claimed that a number of districts, which

had belonged at one time to the territories ceded to him in the peace of Nymwegen, 1680. were also included in the treaty, and he seized a multitude of cities, villages, castles and mills, in a word whole districts on the left bank of the Rhine, and

Sept. 1681. at last took possession of the free city of Strasburg. The free citizens were disarmed and compelled to take the oath of allegiance to their foreign monarch



THE GREAT ELECTOR.



GEORGE DERFLINGER.



on their knees; the Strasburg Minster, the glory of German architecture, was given over to Catholic worship. Italy also suffered from the violence of the King, especially

*Truce of Regensburg.* Milan and Genoa. Austria, Spain and Germany yielded without resistance to these outrages, and made a twenty years' truce with the

*Aug. 15, 1684.* French king, on condition that he would make no more reprisals and attempt no further extension of his frontiers.

*e. Austria's Extremity and Victory.*

§ 406. During all this time the Emperor Leopold was kept busy in the east of his kingdom. In Hungary, the oppression of the Protestants, the quartering of soldiers upon the people, and the acts of violence against certain noblemen had produced dangerous insurrections, and the Turks had renewed their former plans of conquest. The Austrian authorities hoped by their severity to put down the rebellion:

*1671.* they executed the leaders and violated the chartered rights of the nation. But these arbitrary proceedings exasperated the Hungarians all the more, provoking their love of freedom and their warlike impulses. Emmerich Toekoeli, an energetic nobleman,

*1674.* whose estate had been confiscated, raised the standard of rebellion, and was soon at the head of a powerful army with which he drove the Austrians from Hungary. Louis XIV. furnished him assistance, and the

*1682.* Porte, which recognized him as the tributary king of Hungary, sent a great army to his aid. Devastating all before them

*1683.* the Turks approached the walls of Vienna. The Court fled to Linz: the capital of Austria seemed lost: but the courage of the citizens, and the incompetency of the Ottomans in conducting a siege, enabled the city to withstand all attacks for sixty days

*Sept. 12, 1683.* until the army of Charles of Lorraine united with the Polish army under the heroic king John Sobieski, and relieved the distressed city. The Turks were defeated in a bloody battle at the gates of Vienna. They retreated hastily, leaving enormous booty in the hands of the victors. Hungary was then conquered, Toekoeli compelled to fly, and Ofen, which had been in the hands of the Turks for 146 years, was taken from them. The Hungarian nobility were deprived of their ablest leaders,

*1687.* and a reign of terror established in the land. The Emperor Leopold then abolished the elective monarchy and overthrew the Hungarian constitution. Hungary was converted into a hereditary possession of the Hapsburgs. The Turks made great efforts to recover what they had lost, and the blood of Christians and of Turks flowed in streams about the walls of Belgrade. But Charles of Lorraine, Prince Eugene and Louis of Baden, the Austrian commanders held aloft the standard of victory.



JOHN SOBIESKI.



**1699.** By the treaty of Carlowitz, Transylvania and all the land between the Danube and the Theiss were surrendered to Austria.

*d. The Orleans War. (1689-1697.)*

§ 407. To assist the Turks in their war against Austria, Louis XIV. provoked the so-called Orleans war. When the Elector Carl died without male heirs, and his land passed over to the Catholic line of Pfalz Neuburg, Louis XIV., in the name of his brother, the Duke of Orleans (who had married the sister of the Elector) laid claim to all his estates; and when his claim was not allowed, he sent his armies to the Rhine. To make an invasion of France impossible, he commanded the regions of the Rhine to be



PRINCE EUGENE BEFORE BELGRADE.

devastated, so as to put a desert between the two kingdoms. The wild hordes set fire to the prosperous villages, to the rich cities along the Rhine, and ravaged all the southern portion of the Palatinate. The ruined tower of the castle at Heidelberg is a silent witness of this barbarism. At Mannheim, the inhabitants themselves were compelled to lay violent hands upon their fortifications and their homes. At Heidelberg

**June, 1689.** the bridge across the Neckar was blown to atoms, and a part of the city destroyed by fire. Another cause of this war, in which the Netherlands, Spain, and Savoy, were soon involved, was the appointment to the archbishopric of Cologne. Louis XIV. had, by bribery, compassed the election of his friend William of Furstenberg, but the Pope and the Emperor refused to confirm the election. The war lasted eight years, and in spite of the superior numbers of his enemies, the French monarch

was victorious, because of the ability of his generals, In Italy, in Holland, in the sorely afflicted Germany, and in Northern Spain, the French fought with great success.

1697. And yet Louis, in the peace of Ryswick, which closed the war, was far more moderate than he had been in the peace of Nymwegen. The Germans were the chief losers as Strasburg, and all the districts, annexed by the French, were retained



DESTRUCTION OF HEIDELBERG.

by King Louis. But the clause in the treaty, according to which Catholic worship must be tolerated in all Protestant districts which the French had occupied during the war, became, for the Protestants of the Palatinate, a source of many sorrows. Louis XIV. foresaw the coming vacancy of the Spanish throne, and hence made a hasty peace, that his hands might be free for his great opportunity.



e. *Court Life, Literature, Church.*

§ 408. The age of Louis XIV. is spoken of, in the obsequious histories of his



NOBLEMAN. (*Middle of 17th Century.*)

time, as "the golden age" of France. Commerce and industry prospered greatly under Colbert's care. The weaving of wool and of silk, the manufacture of stockings and of fine cloth, all of which were cultivated in the cities of the south, brought great prosperity. Sea trade increased rapidly, colonies were planted, and commercial companies carried the products of France into all the regions of the earth. The French Court revealed a hitherto unknown splendor. The castles of Versailles, with its columns, its fountains, its avenues of trees, and its decorated gardens, was a model of taste for all Europe. Festivities of all sorts, operas and dramas, to which the first mind of France contributed, followed each other in fascinating alternations. Poets, artists, and scholars vied with each other, to celebrate a prince that rewarded their efforts, to give him pleasure, or to increase his renown with the utmost generosity.

Splendid structures, like the Hôtel Des Invalides, precious libraries, invaluable books and manuscripts, academies of science and of art, increased the glory and the fame of the grand monarch. The easy manners of the nobility and of the court, and their grateful sociability, conquered Europe more effectually than the French army. French fashions, French language and literature, prevailed in the circles of high society everywhere. The foundation of the French Academy, by Richelieu, led to the perfection of the French language and of the French style, and made it the language of diplomacy and of society, of conversation and of correspondence. Dramatic poetry reached its climax in

*Corneille*, Peter Corneille,

†1684. in Jean Racine,

*Racine*, †1699. and in Molière.

*Molière*, †1678. Corneille's "Cid" was the first great pro-



MOLIERE.



duction of the French tragic drama. Racine's Iphigenia and Phædra were attempts to rival Euripides, while in his Tartuffe, his Miser, and his Misanthrope, the comedian Molière showed himself to be thoroughly acquainted with the weaknesses of human

**Boileau**, †1711. nature. Boileau, in his odes and satires, imitated Horace.

**Lafontaine**, Lafontaine, in his fables †1694. and stories, produced a

book for children that yet holds a place in all cultivated families. Fênelon, in

**Fenelon**, †1715. his Telemachus, gave a charming treatise on education, which was translated in all the languages of

**Bossuet**, †1704. Europe. Bossuet was a master of eloquence in the pulpit and in theological controversy; the Hugue-

**Bayle**, †1706. not Bayle elaborated, with wonderful ability, the philosophy of doubt; and the provincial letters of

**Pascal**, †1662. Pascal belonged to the most brilliant and most powerful productions of controversial literature. The Society of Jesus has never recovered from the blows inflicted upon



MADAME DE MAINTENON.

them, by this mighty adversary.

§ 409. But the stain upon the glory of Louis XIV. is his persecution of the



PERSECUTION OF THE HUGUENOTS.

Huguenots. The French king believed that the unity of the Church was inseparable from the unity of the monarchy. He therefore oppressed the Jansenists, a Catholic party, which was at first opposed by the Jesuits, and afterward by the Pope. And for

the same reason he persecuted the Calvinists, till they fled the kingdom, or returned to the Catholic church. Colbert, who thought highly of the Huguenots as industrious and inventive citizens, for a long time prevented violent measures. But the influence of the royal confessor, La Chaise, the zeal of Madame de Maintenon, and the stubborn cruelty of Louvois, the minister of war, finally determined the King to his destructive course. The number of Huguenot churches was diminished, and their worship was limited to a few cities. Every time Louis was attacked with a fit of repentance or of devotion, the Calvinistic heretics suffered the consequences; for by their conversion, he hoped to atone for his own sins. The Huguenots were gradually excluded from offices and dignities, from all positions of honor, and all rights in the guilds. Converts were favored; the poor were bribed; the conversion of children was declared valid; families were divided; children taken from their parents and brought up in the Catholic faith; and a return to Huguenot worship was punished as a crime. Court and clergy, the eloquent Bishop Bossuet at their head, did their utmost to establish the ecclesiastical unity of France. When all these measures failed, the dragonnades were tried. Dragoons were sent into the south, and quartered upon the Huguenots. The outrages of these booted and spurred "converters" who left the houses of apostates, and crowded into the dwellings of the steadfast, were mightier than all the inducements of the Court, and all the temptations of the priests. Thousands fled to foreign countries, that they might enjoy their faith in peace. Last of all

**October, 1685.** came the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Calvinistic worship was

forbidden; their churches were torn down; their schools closed; their preachers exiled; and when the emigration increased so enormously as to frighten the government, it was prohibited, under penalty of galley-slavery and confiscation. Yet, in spite of these threats and prohibitions, half a million French Calvinists carried their industry, their faith, and their hearts into Switzerland, Prussia, Holland and England. These fugitive Huguenots taught to foreigners the art of weaving silk fabrics, and of knitting stockings. Flat-



FRENCH INFANTRY IN BATTLE.

terers might praise the King as an exterminator of heresy, but the courage of the peasants in the Cevennes mountains, and the great number of the Huguenots who were satisfied with family worship, soon proved that religious oppression had failed of its purpose. For when the persecution reached the mountain valleys where the Waldenses preserved their simple worship, the pursuers met with desperate resistance. A terrible war filled the peaceful valleys of the mountains. Fugitive priests, in the gloom of the forests, excited their evangelical brethren to enthusiastic conflicts, until the persecutors grew weary of the fight. Two million Huguenots were left by the Edict of Nantes without civil rights and without worship.





REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES. (*A. de Neuville.*) (pp. 509.)



## IV. THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

## 1. THE SPANISH WAR OF SUCCESSION (1701-1714).

## § 410.



HE last Hapsburg in Spain was approaching his end. Exasperated by the European powers, who, during his life time, had agreed upon a division of his land, the childless king, Charles II., made a secret testament, in which he excluded Austria from the Spanish throne, and named a grandson of Louis XIV., Duke Philip of Anjou, as heir to the Spanish dominions.

Charles died in the last year of the seventeenth century, and Louis

1700.

XIV., after some hesitation, determined to accept the testament. True, his exhausted kingdom needed rest, but his cabinet and Madame de Maintenon were not afraid of war. "There are no Pyrenees any longer," exclaimed the eager

*Leopold I.,*

1657-1705.

monarch. But kings are not ways prophets. The Emperor, Leopold, took up arms to defend the inheritance of his second son Carl. With him stood the princes of Germany, especially the Elector Frederick of Brandenburg, and the Elector of Hanover. England and Holland also came to the support of Austria; Holland because she feared the growth of France, and England because the

1701.

French king had recognized the pretender, James III., as the king of England. Only two German princes took the side of France, the Elector of Bavaria and his brother, the Elector of Cologne. Spain was divided. The Eastern provinces were for Austria; the rest of the land was for the Bourbon king, Philip V., who was, by his mother's side, a Spaniard and a Hapsburg.

§ 411. This time Austria and England conquered; for their armies were led by the two greatest generals of their time, Prince Eugene of Savoy, and the Duke of Marlborough. Prince Eugene, who had acquired great renown in the war with the Turks, made a masterly march into Italy, driving back the Spanish army, and bringing the Duke of Savoy to the side of Austria. Marlborough was the head of

1701.

the Whig party in England, which under Queen Anne conducted the government, and was therefore given almost unlimited power. The Duke of Savoy, by his alliance with Austria, brought his dominions into great distress. Piedmont was conquered, and also Lombardy.

1703.

But the brave Tyroleans drove back the Bavarians, and prevented a junction of the Spaniards with their German allies. The Elector of Bavaria was obliged to abandon the Tyrol, and to unite with the French army. Prince Eugene and Louis of Baden now bore down upon them. Marlborough executing a masterly movement along the Rhine and the Moselle, formed a junction with them, and in the



PRINCE EUGENE.

**Aug. 13, 1704.** battle of Blenheim, the French and Bavarian army were utterly routed. The French were, for the most part, taken prisoners; their ammunitions and

**Joseph I., 1705-1711.** supplies fell into the hands of the enemy. Bavaria was abandoned to the Austrians, and cruelly oppressed. The Elector and his brother were

put under the imperial ban by Leopold's successor, Joseph I.

§ 412. The French were defeated likewise in the Netherlands and in Italy. Marlborough overthrew completely the incompetent Marshal Villeroy in the

**May 23, 1706.** battle of Ramillies. As a consequence, the Spanish Netherlands recognized the Austrian claimant as the king of Spain. In Italy Prince Eugene in the battle of Turin,

**Sept. 7, 1706.** routed the French army, and occupied Milan, Lombardy, Lower Italy, and Sicily. Only in Spain could Philip of Anjou maintain himself against the English and Austrian armies.

Barcelona, Valencia, and other important cities however refused to acknowledge his authority, while the English acquired nothing except Gibraltar, which they hold to this day. Philip

**1704.** V., who soon prevailed, threatened dire punishment to his rebellious cities. Valencia was devastated, and her brave citizens, who were determined to suffer

**1702.** death rather than to submit to the hated Castilians, set fire to their own houses, and were buried under the ruins. The conquests of Saragossa and Lerida broke the resistance, and the axe of the headsman destroyed the lives of the boldest leaders. Aragon, Catalana, and Valencia lost the last remnants of their rights, and



*E. Ronjat*

THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH AND HIS WIFE. (*E. Ronjat.*)

were governed henceforth by the laws of Castile. Yet Barcelona persisted in her resistance, till the close of the war.

§ 413. In 1708, Eugene and Marlborough  
*July 11, 1708.* increased their renown, by a great victory at Oudenarde, on the river Scheldt. Louis XIV. now despaired of success, and startled at the exhaustion of his people, he even wished for peace. But Eugene, Marlborough, and the Dutch statesman Heinsius, succeeded in forcing upon him hard conditions. He was asked to give up not only all claim to the Spanish monarchy, but Alsace and the city of Strasburg, and he would have consented, if his enemies had not insisted also that he should help to drive his own grandson out of Spain. This was too much for the French court, and the war continued. In the terrible  
*Sept. 11, 1709.* battle of Malplaquet, the French lost more men than at any previous defeat, and were ready for almost any terms. But the victors did not know the day of their opportunity.



LOUIS XV. AND FRENCH GENERAL (1715.)

§ 414. The wife of Marlborough quarreled with Queen Anne. A Cabal drove the Duchess from the English court, and the Whig ministry gave place to the Tories.

Bolingbroke and the new cabinet wished for the end of the war, so as to do without

*1710.* Marlborough, and began negotiations with France. These were soon

completed, especially as Joseph I. died without male issue, and his brother Carl, the

*1711.* claimant of the Spanish monarch, inherited the Austrian crown. It

*Carl VI.,* was certainly not the interest

*1711-1740.* of the foreign powers to enlarge Austria by the annexation of Spain,

and thus to establish the superiority of the House of Hapsburg. A truce was

agreed upon, between England and France. Marlborough was accused of speculations,

and deprived of his dignities; and when the truce expired, the treaty of Utrecht was

framed. Spain and the American possessions were given to the Bourbon king, Philip V.,

upon condition that the French and Spanish crowns should never be united. England received from France, Nova Scotia and



FRENCH ABBE. (Early 18th Century.)

other possessions in North America, and from Spain, Gibraltar, with certain commercial



advantages. The Duke of Savoy obtained the island of Sardinia, with the title of  
*April 11, 1713.* king. The Emperor of Germany would not sign the treaty of Utrecht,  
 and continued the conflict for some time.

But Carl was soon convinced that he could not prosecute the war successfully  
 alone. He therefore agreed to the peace of Rastatt. Austria obtained the Spanish  
*March, 1714.* Netherlands, together with Milan, Naples, and Sicily. The Electors  
 of Bavaria and of Cologne were restored to their possessions, and the title of the King  
 of Prussia was universally recognized.

§ 415. FRANCE. Louis XIV. died in the following year. He was tired of life,  
*Sept. 10, 1715.* and bowed down by affliction. Within two years he had lost his son,  
*Louis XV.,* his grandson, his great-grandson, and his brilliant wife. His succes-  
*1715-1724.* sor, Louis XV., was but five years old. During his minority, Philip of



JAMES WATT DISCOVERING THE POWER OF STEAM.

*Orleans Regent,* Orleans was regent of France, and Cardinal Du Bois, his former teacher,  
*1715-1723.* became his prime minister. Regent and minister alike were brilliant  
 and talented, but highly immoral, despising virtue and religion, and wasting the  
 revenues of the state, to satisfy their love of luxury and of pleasure. During the  
 regency, the Scotchman, John Law, established his celebrated bank, which promised  
 immense gains, especially from a speculation in Louisiana. This created an incredible  
 excitement in France, which the regent and his companion made the most of. Law's  
 bank was made a royal institution, and the coin of the realm was exchanged for paper  
*1720.* money. An immense number of bank notes were issued, until at last  
 the bank broke, ruining thousands, while the greedy nobles became immensely wealthy.

§ 416. SPAIN. The Spanish king, Philip V., was a weak prince, governed by

**Philip V.**, women, tormented by melancholy, and by his ambitious second wife, Elizabeth of Parma. With the help of an Italian named Alberoni, Elizabeth obtained for her oldest son Charles, Naples and Sicily; and for her second son Philip, the dukedom of Parma. When Philip died, he was succeeded by his son **Ferdinand VI.**, Ferdinand VI., but he too **1740-1759.** was afflicted by incurable melancholy, which was charmed away by the singer Faranelli, who obtained great influence at court.

§ 417. ENGLAND. George I., II., and III., **George I.**, were kings of the House of **1714-1727.** Hanover. The two former **George II.**, were almost strangers in the **1727-1760.** realm, and consequently exercised but little personal influence upon the course of events. English constitutional liberty became so firmly established, however, that the responsible government thought mainly of the well-fare of the realm, and the greatness of the nation. The first two Georges permitted themselves occasional interferences



CZAR AND BOYARS. (17th Century.)



BOYARS AND LADY. (17th & 18th Centuries.)

**1745.** His early successes encouraged him to invade England, but the bat-

in the government of the state, but in the main the law prevailed, and freedom was secure. Commerce and industry were constantly extended, and the land was extremely prosperous. In the year 1769, James Watt constructed the steam engine, which created a new epoch in human development, and about the same time, Arkwright invented the spinning-jenny and the power loom, for the weaving of wool, cotton and flax. In the reign of George I., the pretender, James III., with the help **1715-1717.** of dissatisfied Tories, sought to obtain the English throne, but his enterprise failed, and brought upon his adherents a great disaster. In the days of George II., Charles Edward, the son of James, ventured a second attempt. With the help of France, he landed in Scotland, where he obtained a numerous following among the daring highlanders.





LANDING OF EDWARD THE PRETENDER.

(pp. 515.)



tle of Culloden destroyed forever the hopes of the Stuarts. Charles Edward, like Charles II., was saved in a romantic fashion by the friends and adherents of his house. But they were fearfully punished for their devotion. Executions and confiscations went on without end; the prisons, from Edinburg to London, were filled with Jacobites.

2. CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN AND PETER, THE GREAT OF RUSSIA (1700-1718.)  
*Sweden and Russia.*

§ 418. In the beginning of the 18th. century, Sweden reached the pinnacle of



*Peter*

PETER THE GREAT. (Godfrey Kneller.)

her power. Charles XI. increased the royal estates, and filled the state treasury by his sagacity and his economy. Army and fleet were maintained in good condition. The shores of the Baltic, with the rich cities of Stralsund, Stettin, Riga, Wismar, and the mouths of the Oder, the Weser, the Dwina and the Dnieper, were Swedish territory. The present city of St. Petersburg was at that time a swamp on Swedish soil, and the Swedes were equal to any people of Europe, in valor and in military skill. But when the Russians were united under the

*House of Romanoff.* House of Romanoff.  
 1613-1730.

they began to extend their frontiers in all directions. Alexis Romanoff

*Alexis,* acquired  
 1645-1676. Smolensk

*Feodor.* industry and the cultivation of the land. Feodor Romanoff was  
 1676-1682. the creator of the absolutism of the Czar, as he destroyed the

family register, upon which the noble families based their claims.

§ 419. *Peter the Great.* What his ancestors had begun, was brought to com-

*Peter the Great*, pletion by Peter the Great. He made great journeys through Europe, 1689-1725. acquainting himself with the institutions of cultivated nations, and with the advantages of organized government. He thereupon determined to transform the Russian empire from an Asiatic to a European state. To this end he promoted the immigration of foreign artisans, sailors, and officers, notwithstanding the prejudices of his own countrymen. He studied ship-building in Holland and in England, visited the workshops of artists and of manufactures, and studied the construction of mills and machines. An uprising against the innovations and the foreigners was suppressed and skillfully used by the Czar, to transform his military system. The guilty were terribly punished, being hanged or beheaded or broken on the wheel, and as the Czar participated in person in these executions, it was manifest, that the new culture had not reached his heart. He compelled his subjects to wear the European costume, but he himself remained a barbarian in



JOHN SOBIESKI.



POLISH WINGED CAVALRY IN BATTLE. (W. Camphausen.)

means, opinions, and methods; abandoned to drink, savage in his passions, and terrible in his wrath.

§ 420. *Poland under Frederick Augustus the Strong.* While Russia was growing

**Frederick August II.** mightier, Poland was nearing the edge of ruin. When John Sobiesk (king) died, there ensued a violent contest for the crown, which ended in the election of Frederick Augustus of Saxony, a prince famous for his gigantic strength, and for his dissolute life. He was proclaimed king of Poland **1697.** after he had gone over to the Catholic church. But the Polish nobility had so diminished the authority of the crown, that the state was rather an oligarchy than a monarchy. The nobles alone possessed civil rights, the peasants were serfs, and the artisans and merchants were in everything subordinate to these feudal lords. And the elected king was nothing more than the administrator of the decrees of the nobles.

§ 421. Charles XII. was but sixteen years old when he ascended the Swedish throne. Accordingly, the rulers of Russia, Poland, and Denmark **1697-1718.** thought it would be easy to deprive Sweden of her conquered land.



CHARLES XII. RELIEVING NARVA.

Peter the Great, wished to establish himself on the Baltic; Augustus the Strong wanted Livonia; and the Danish king, Frederick IV., sought to acquire Schleswig. They concluded an alliance with each other, and Frederick Augustus marched with a Saxon army to the frontiers of Livonia, while the Russians besieged Narva, and the Danish king attacked the Duke of Holstein.

But the young King, indignant at the unrighteousness of his enemies, crossed with his brave army to Seeland, besieged Copenhagen, and so frightened the Danes, that Frederick IV. gave up his allies, and promised to compensate the Duke of Holstein. Charles now **1700.** turned upon his other enemies. With 8,000 men he defeated 80,000 Russians at Narva, captured many cannons and much ammunition. He then marched into Poland, defeated the Saxon and Polish armies, conquering one state after the other. The citizens of Warsaw surrendered with trembling hands the keys of their capital, **1701.** and paid the contributions that he levied upon them. The fruitful regions of the Vistula, and the Polish cities of the Baltic were soon in the power of the Swedes. Charles required the Poles to set aside their king, Frederick Augustus, and to choose another. They struggled desperately against this decree, but Charles compelled them to obey, and the choice fell upon Stanislaus Lesczinski.

§ 422. Campaigning in the south of Poland was difficult, on account of the



swamps and the poverty of the country, yet Charles XII. succeeded even there. He then marched across Silesia into the heart of Saxony, which suffered terribly from the ravages of the Swedish army. The inhabitants of the plains fled into the cities, and the royal family sought protection in the neighboring kingdom. Augustus, to save his land from ruin, gave up the Polish crown, renounced the alliance with the Czar,

*Sept. 1706.* and surrendered the Russian ambassador Patkul to the Swedish king. Charles had Patkul broken on the wheel, and in spite of the peace, occupied Saxony for a whole year, the land suffering terribly from his exactions, and at the same time from the extravagance of the court at Dresden; for while the estates of the realm consented grudgingly to the enormous taxes, and the wretched peasant was starving, Augustus the Strong was maintaining a splendid court, and spending enormous sums upon his festivals. Charles XII. was a strong contrast to the dissolute Elector. Charles was every inch a soldier; he drank no spirituous liquors, and shared with the common soldier all the hardships of the campaign. He ate common food, wore common clothing; the same dress in summer and winter; a long military coat, and great cavalry boots. He loved the sound of the battle, the whistling of balls, and the neighing of the war-horse. He cared nothing for operas and concerts and court festivals.

§ 423. While Charles XII. was wasting time in Saxony and Poland, Peter the Great was planning to conquer the Swedish possessions on the Baltic.

*1703.* He built the fort at Cronstadt, drained the marshes on the Neva, and laid the foundations of St. Petersburg. Moscow and other cities were compelled to furnish noblemen, merchants, and artisans for the new capital. And even foreigners were induced to emigrate thither. Charles XII. now determined to attack Moscow, and to press into the heart of Russia. It would have been far wiser to have marched to the Baltic, and to have exterminated these new crea-

*1708.* tions. But the Swedish king choose the way to Smolensk. No Russian army opposed him, as he waded, with his army, through the deep rivers, and traversed the pathless swamps. In an evil hour he determined not to wait for his general Löwenhaupt, who was on the way to him with fresh troops and supplies, but allowed himself to be persuaded by the old Cossack, Mazeppa, to march into Ukraine. Löwenhaupt, attacked by the Russians, escaped only by the loss of all his artillery and his supplies, and with great difficulty united the remnant of his army with the forces of the King. The autumn rains were followed by a terrible winter; many of the

*July 8, 1709.* veterans perished by cold, and thousands lost their hands and feet. Finally Charles beleaguered Pultawa, but his cannon were not heavy enough to reach the city, and Peter arrived with a great army. The battle of Pultawa followed, in which the Swedish army was utterly routed. All their supplies and ammunition were



POLISH LANCER AND ARMORED CAVALRYMAN.

captured by the enemy, and the surviving leaders and soldiers were taken prisoners. Charles XII., the proud conqueror of three kings, became a helpless fugitive, who, only after desperate efforts in the shelterless and famine stricken Steppes, escaped with two thousand companions into Turkish territory. Löwenhaupt collected the rest of the fugitives; but retreat was impossible, for lack of food and artillery; so he surrendered with sixteen thousand men. Not a man of them ever saw his home again. They were scattered through the empire, and died either in the mines of Siberia or as beggars on the highways.

§ 424. Charles XII. was honorably treated by the Turks. In his camp at Ben-



*Carolus.*

CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

der, he was maintained in sovereign state, as the guest of the Sultan. But the thought of returning home vanquished, and without his army, was unendurable to his proud soul. He tried to induce the Turks to make war upon Russia, and spent time and strength, and exhausted every means to gain the Turks for his plans. But meanwhile, his three antagonists renewed their former alliance. Frederick Augustus took possession of the Polish kingdom: Peter the Great extended his conquest to the Baltic, and the King of Denmark occupied Schleswig. Prussia and Hanover also joined the alliance, and invaded the German territories of Sweden. Only with difficulty was it possible for the brave general

Stenbock, with his small army of peasants, to defend the fortified coast cities; but finally Charles XII. seemed about to achieve his wishes. A Turkish army entered Moldavia, and surrounded the Russian czar, forcing him almost to surrender. But his wife Catharine, (once a slave of his minister Menschikoff), managed to bribe the Turkish Vizier and, by his help, to conclude a peace. Charles XII.



PETER THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF PULTAWA.

(*pp.* 521.)



foamed with rage at this failure of his cherished plan, yet he persisted in his purpose, and remained at Bender until the Sultan withdrew his support, and commanded him to leave the Turkish dominion. He took the money given him for his journey, and remained at Bender nevertheless. Finally the Janissaries stormed his camp, set fire to his tent, in which he defended himself with leonine strength, and finally took him prisoner. He remained ten months in captivity, and consumed his strength in childish obstinacy. Not until he was told that his German possessions had fallen into the

*November, 1714.* hands of his enemies, did he abandon Turkey, and set out for Stralsund on horseback, where he arrived after fourteen days' continuous riding.

§ 425. Stralsund was defended by the brave Swedes, with the utmost courage.

*Dec., 1715.* But at the end of a year, the city was compelled to surrender, whereupon all Pomerania and the island of Rügen came into the hands of Prussia. But the obstinate king, Charles, would make no peace. He coined copper dollars to pay

the expenses of new equipments, and without waiting for the result of negotiations with the Russian emperor, he invaded Norway to chastise the King of Denmark, for his violation of the treaty. One of his armies perished with cold, hunger, and fatigue. With the other, the King marched to the south; but at the siege of

*1718.* Friederickshall, he lost his life.

The Swedish nobility now usurped all authority. They excluded the rightful heir, Friederick of Holstein, and conferred it upon the younger

*1719.* sister of Charles XII., Ulrica

Eleanora, and her husband Frederick, of Hesse Cassel. Sweden was no longer a monarchy, except in name. All power lay in the hands of the imperial council of nobles. Baron von Goersz, the minister of Charles, was cruelly executed, and a number of treaties speedily confirmed, in which Sweden gave up all her foreign possessions, except a small part of



TURKISH PASHA AND NOBLEMAN.  
(16th & 17th Centuries.)

Pomerania.

§ 426. But Russia emerged from the struggle a mighty European power. The acquisition of Esthonia and Livonia, and other Swedish provinces, was for Russia the beginning of a new epoch. So long as Moscow was the capital, the eyes of the Czar were directed to Asia, with whose inhabitants and customs the Russians had greater sympathy than with the European. But now that Petersburg had become the seat of government, and had been adorned by great buildings and parks, Russia had become a European empire. The restless activity of the great Czar, produced a complete transformation. Commerce and navigation were promoted by the building of highways, canals, and harbors. Manufactures and mining were especially favored, and an academy of sciences was founded. The internal administration, especially the police system, assumed new form, so that the imperial power was increased, and that of the nobility diminished. One of the most important innovations of Peter the Great, was



SWEDES CARRYING BODY OF CHARLES XII. FROM FRIEDRICKSHALL. (*G. Cätersröm.*) (pp. 523.)

the abolition of the patriarchal dignity, and the creation of the Holy Synod as the supreme authority in church affairs, to which the Czar himself gave direction.

§ 427. But Peter remarked with sorrow, that his only son Alexis, was opposed to these innovations, and was surrounding himself with friends of the old order, evidently intending to return to Moscow as the capital of the empire. The Czar sought to bend the defiant spirit of his son, and to make him friendly to European culture. Alexis refused to be conciliated, and finally escaped from the kingdom. Peter, concerned for the continuance of his institutions, had his son brought home, and then condemned to death. Whether he was executed or died before the judgment could

1718.

*Catharine I.,*

1725-1727.

*Peter II.,*

1727-1730.

*Anna,*

1730-1740.

*Elizabeth,*

1741-1762.

be carried out, is uncertain. When Peter died, he was succeeded by his wife Catharine I. Under her and her successor, Peter II., Menschikoff conducted the government; but just as he hoped to marry his daughter to the young emperor, he was overthrown, and banished to Siberia. The empress Anna who succeeded Peter II., gave her confidence to the energetic Germans, Ostermann, and Muennich; the former was her minister of state, and the latter her minister of war. But when the youngest daughter of Peter the Great, Elizabeth, was elevated to the throne by a palace revolution, all the favorites of Anna were banished to Siberia. The infant Ivan, whom Anna had named as her successor, was thrown into prison, and suffered to grow up like a brute. Elizabeth abandoned herself to a dissolute life, and the government to her favorites.

§ 428. The riotous life of Frederick Augustus the Strong, was transferred from Dresden to Poland, and destroyed the little remnant of moral power left in the Polish nobility. New vices were blended with the old. Vanity, flattery, and religious bigotry were more at home in Poland than ever. The Jesuits succeeded in depriving the

1712.

Polish dissidents of their ecclesiastical and civil rights. This led to an uprising in the Protestant city of Thorn, and to the execution of ten of its chief

1794.

citizens. The principal church was given over to the Catholics, and the city deprived of its charter. To complete the ruin of the nation, the war of succession broke out in 1733. Stanislaus Lesczinski, who had fled from Poland after the battle of Pultawa, and who had married his daughter to King Louis XV., of France, renewed his claims to the throne, and relying upon French help, had set out for War-

1733.

saw. But Russia and Austria favored Frederick Augustus III., of Saxony. Stanislaus, although acknowledged by the Polish people, was compelled to fly to Königsberg, and thence to France, when the Russian troops entered Poland. Frederick Augustus III., known as King August II., was a weak and inactive monarch, under whose reign Poland rapidly neared her dissolution. Stanislaus, however,

1736.

became the possessor of Lorraine, and lived twenty-nine years in Nancy, a friend of the poor, and a patron of the arts and sciences.

### 3. THE RISE OF PRUSSIA.

§ 429. Frederick William the Great, Elector of Brandenburg, greatly increased

*Elector Fred-*

*erick William,*

1640-1688.

his territory by successful wars, and secured to his kingdom an influential position by the founding of a great army. He encouraged prosperity and culture at home, by favoring the immigration of foreigners, especially of French Huguenots. He was followed by his son, the Elector



**Frederick III.** Frederick III., to whom the splendor of Versailles seemed to be the highest triumph of earthly majesty. He looked with envy upon the **King** Electors of Hanover and Saxony, because they were called kings; **Frederick I.,** and great was his joy, when the Emperor Leopold rewarded him for **1688-1713.** his support in the War of the Spanish Succession, by acknowledging him as king of **Jan. 18, 1701.** Prussia. He was solemnly crowned in Königsberg, placing the crown upon his own head and that of his wife, and then entered Berlin in triumph, as king Frederick I. He adorned his capital with palaces and monuments, collected distinguished Prussians about him in Charlottenburg, and with the help of Leibnitz, the philosopher, founded academies of sciences and arts in Berlin, and established the University of Halle, to which he called a number of distinguished scholars and philosophers.

§ 430. But these expenditures brought heavy taxes. The splendor of the new monarchy seemed about to become pernicious to the state. Fortunately, the extravagant Frederick I., was followed by the economical



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

**Frederick** Frederick William I. Lux-  
**William I.,** ury was banished from the  
**1713-1740.** court; the retinue of servants was greatly limited; the royal table became quite simple; the Queen and her daughters busied themselves with domestic affairs; raiment and furniture were of the most unpretentious character. Instead of a circle of philosophers, Frederick William and his good friends formed their tobacco college, where each member told his doubtful story, and smoked his strong tobacco. Christian Wolf, the philosopher, received orders to leave Halle within four and twenty hours. Nevertheless the King made things easier for the peasants, and encouraged industry. He forbade the import of foreign

**1729.** manufactures; he gave a home to the exiled Protestants of Salzburg; and he compelled judges and officials to perform their duty. The only luxury he allowed himself, was the enormous sum he spent upon his Potsdam guard. He spared no expense to get "tall fellows" from all the land of Europe,—not a few being kidnapped, and brought by stealth into his dominion. At his death he left £8,000,000 in cash, a great treasure in silver ornaments and utensils, a well-organized revenue system, and a splendidly organized army.

§ 431. His great son, Frederick II., struck out a different path. While his father **Frederick II.,** was hunting or surrounded by his rude companions, the talented prince **born Jan. 24,** was busy with French writers, and with the flute, which he passionately loved. Father and son had little sympathy with each other. **1712;** **died 1786.** Frederick was repelled by his father's cruelty, and the father was angry that the son pursued a path of his own. Finally, Frederick arranged a plan to

escape paternal authority, by flight. But a letter of Frederick's to his confidant, Lieutenant Von Katte, revealed the secret. The king foamed with rage. He imprisoned his son at Fort Kuestrin, and ordered Von Katte to be hung up in front of Frederick's window. All who were in the secret were terribly punished by the enraged monarch. Not until Frederick besought his father's forgiveness was he released from prison and given back his sword and his uniform. Soon afterward he was married to a princess of Brunswick. But he seldom saw his wife, especially after his father gave him for his own the town of Reinsberg, where he carried on a gay life in the circle of his cultivated and free-thinking friends. He read the works of the ancients in French translations, he greatly admired French literature, and became so enamored of Voltaire, that he wrote him flattering letters, and subsequently invited him to his court. Frederick invited also a number of French authors, who had been banished from France, to take refuge with him; and when he ascended the throne, he recalled Wolf to Halle with the well-known expression that "In his dominions everyone might go to heaven in his own fashion."

#### 4. THE AGE OF FREDERICK II., AND OF MARIA THERESA.

a. *The Austrian War of Succession.* (1740-1748.)

§ 432. The Emperor, Karl VI., a good-natured, but by no means distinguished prince, died shortly before Frederick II. ascended the throne. Just before his death, he concluded with the Sultan the shameful peace of Belgrade. He had no male heirs, so it was his chief concern during his reign to secure the succession

*Maria Theresa*, of the Austrian hereditary dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa.

§ 433. To this end he purchased, through great sacrifices, the acknowledgment by all the Courts of the "pragmatic sanction." According to this, the Austrian hereditary lands were to remain undivided, and, should a male line fail, were to pass to the female line. Hardly had the Emperor closed his eyes, when Karl Albert, Elector of Bavaria, laid claim to the Austrian dominions. Karl was too weak and too extravagant to make good his claims with the slender resources of his own exhausted land, but the French court, in spite of its recognition of the "pragmatic sanction," supported him with money and with troops. The French were anxious to have their hands free, to extend their kingdom along the Rhine and in the Netherlands. But Frederick II. now laid claim to Silesia, and also favored the Bavarian Elector in his claims to Austria, Hungaria, and Bohemia. Saxony too started for a share in the booty; even the indolent Frederick Augustus II. laid claim to Moravia, and thus brought unspeakable misery to his unhappy land.

§ 433. A few weeks after the death of Karl VI., the army of Frederick marched into Silesia. The King himself was with his army, rather to learn war than to command in person. His two generals, Schwerin and Leopold Von Dessau,

managed his army with great skill and success. They won the battle of Mollwitz, and occupied the greater part of Silesia. The French army now invaded

Germany, and occupied upper Austria and Bohemia, Karl Albert was acknowledged Duke at Linz, and received in Prague the Bohemian crown. He was now at the pinnacle of his success. He was chosen emperor, and was preparing for a splendid coronation in Frankfort.

§ 434. In her extremity, Maria Theresa turned to Hungary. She appeared (so



(pp. 527.) MARIA THERESA BEFORE THE ASSEMBLY. (P. Phillippoteaux.)



the story goes) with her infant son Joseph in her arms, at a diet in Pressburg, and by her eloquent appeals, and her promises of favor, produced such enthusiasm among the Hungarian magnates, that they broke forth in the cry "Vivat Maria Theresa rex!" The Tyroleans likewise exhibited their ancient fidelity. A mighty army soon marched to the field, drove the Bavarian and French troops before them, and marched, plundering and ravaging, through Bavaria. While Karl Albert was being crowned emperor at Frankfort, the Austrians were invading his capital, Munich. They robbed him of his possessions, and compelled him to take refuge with the French.

§ 435. At the same time an Austrian army invaded Bohemia, and attacked the French. To deprive them of the assistance of Prussia, Maria Theresa ceded Silesia to Frederick II., and in a short time the largest part of Bohemia was in the hands of the Austrians. The French commander Belle-Isle, with a considerable army, was shut up in Prague. But the French Marshal, by a daring movement, escaped to Eger in the middle of winter. In the following spring Maria Theresa was crowned in Prague, and at the same time she obtained a powerful ally in George II., of Hanover and England. The French were driven across the Rhine, and Saxony came over to the side of Austria.

§ 436. The victory of the Austrians, at the battle of Dettingen, alarmed Frederick II., and he began the second Silesian War against Maria Theresa. As ally of the Emperor, he invaded Bohemia, while Charles VII. recovered Bavaria and re-entered Munich. But only to die. His son, Maximilian Joseph, renounced all claims to the Austrian succession, and gave his vote in the election of emperor to the husband of Maria Theresa, who was crowned emperor in Frankfort as Francis I. Meanwhile Frederick II. had lost nearly all Silesia to the Austrians. But his splendid victory at Hohenfriedberg restored to him his advantage. He and his generals won repeated victories; the old Dessau defeated the Saxons; Frederick marched into the abandoned Dresden, and Maria Theresa consented at last to the peace of Dresden, in which she once more ceded Silesia to Frederick, the latter acknowledging her husband, Francis I., as German emperor.

§ 437. But though the war was ended in Germany it continued in the Netherlands. The French were under the lead of the talented Marshal Saxe, and acquired complete possession of the Austrian Netherlands. They made conquests in Holland also, but, exhausted by the war, all longed for peace, and finally the treaty of Aix la Chapelle was concluded, in which the Austrian hereditary lands were given to the Empress Maria Theresa, except Silesia and some Italian possessions. The former fell to Prussia, and the latter to Philip of Parma. The other states returned to the old conditions, and France obtained from the expensive war nothing but military glory.

#### *b The Seven Years' War. (1756-1763.)*

§ 438. Maria Theresa, smarting from the loss of Silesia, used the eight years of peace that now ensued, to form alliances with other European powers. Elizabeth of Russia, angered by Frederick's mockery, and eager for the Prussian possessions on the Baltic, was easily won. Augustus III. of Saxony was also ready to punish the great King, who spoke of him always with contempt. But the masterpiece of Austrian diplomacy was wrought out by the Austrian minister, Kaunitz, at Versailles. For he



CAPTURE OF THE AUSTRIANS AT HOHENFRIEDBERG. (K. Brendamour.)

(pp. 529.)



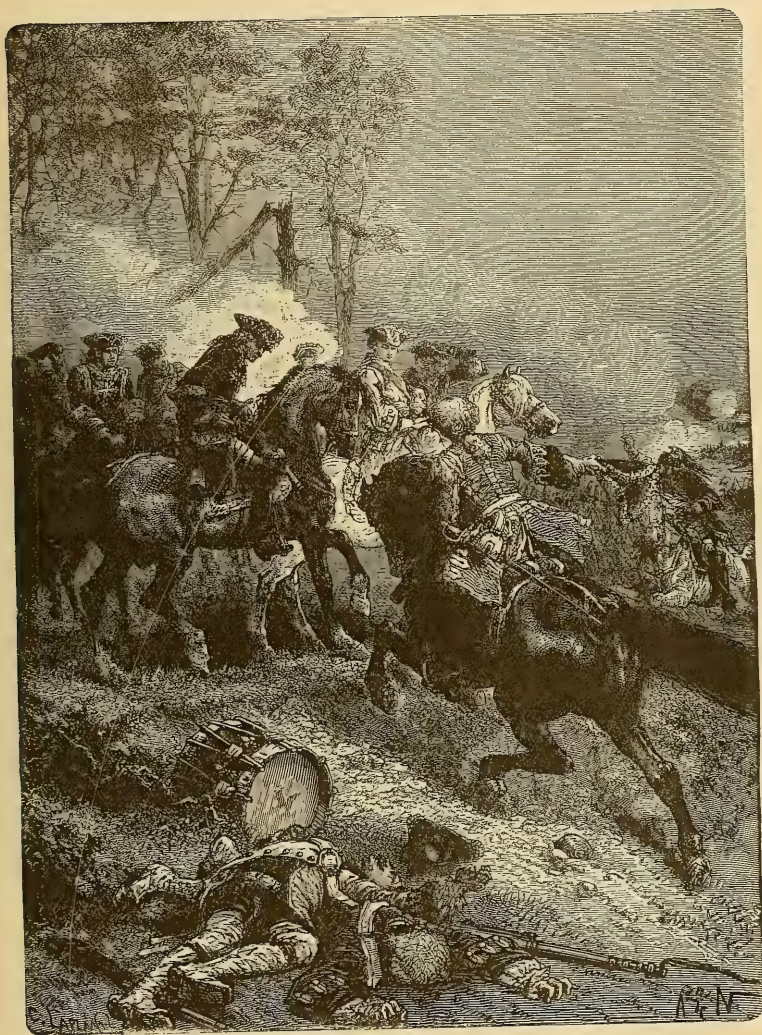
induced France to give up its ancient policy of weakening the House of Hapsburg, and to unite with Austria against Prussia. Louis XV. had given himself up completely to his lusts and to his favorites. The proud and virtuous Maria Theresa condescended so far as to send a flattering letter to the Marquise De Pompadour, the King's all-powerful mistress. The Pompadour and her creatures brought about an alliance between France and Austria, which was intended to deprive Frederick of his possessions, and to reduce the King of Prussia to the rank of an Elector of Brandenburg.



SEYDLITZ AT ROSSBACH.

§ 439. Frederick, apprised of all these movements, determined to anticipate his enemies. He invaded Saxony, occupied Leipzig and Dresden, and established a Prussian administration. The taxes and revenues of the land were confiscated, ammunition, arms, and artillery, carried off to Magdeburg: and to justify his undertaking, Frederick published documents, in which he exposed the plans of his enemies. The Saxon army were forced to surrender at Pirna on the Elbe. Frederick compelled fourteen thousand prisoners to enter the Prussian service, but at the first opportunity they fled to Poland. As Frederick continued to levy money and recruits in Saxony, war was declared upon him by the German empire.





MARSHAL SAXE IN THE BATTLE OF FONTENOY. (*A. de Neuville.*) (pp. 531.)

And the aristocrats of Sweden joined their forces to crush him. England alone, because threatened by France in America, and anxious about Hanover, supported Frederick. A few German states, Hanover, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and Gotha also adopted his cause.

§ 440. The next spring Frederick marched with his main army into Bohemia, while his allies attacked the French, who were between the

*May 6, 1757.* Rhine and the Weser. The battle of Prague was, for Frederick, a dearly purchased, but a brilliant victory. The fruits of it however

*June 8,* were lost the next month, by a defeat at Kollin, which the Prussian King suffered at the hands of the Austrian Field marshal Daun. And to make matters worse, the French won a

*July,* great victory at Hastenbeck, over Frederick's allies, and proceeded to take up winter quarters in Saxony. The Prince of Soubise, a favorite of the Pompadour, had already advanced to the river Saale, when Frederick attacked him

*Nov. 5, 1757.* suddenly, and defeated him in the battle of Rossbach. The imperial army fled at the first encounter, and the French soon followed. Seydlitz, the leader of the Cavalry, had particularly distinguished

*Dec. 5.* himself. A month later Frederick defeated Daun in the battle



FREDERICK WILLIAM VON SEYDLITZ.

Leuthen. But the war greatly distressed all Germany. Hanover, Brunswick, and Hesse Cassel suffered especially from the forced contributions of the Duke of Richelieu.

§ 441. William Pitt had now become the ruling spirit in the English ministry, and Frederick, after the battle of Rossbach, had become the idol of the English people. Pitt determined therefore to support him generously with money and with troops, and to give him the choice of a commander. Frederick appointed Ferdinand of Brunswick who, in

*1758.* early spring, drove the French across the Rhine, and secured North Germany from their invasions. Meanwhile the Russians had marched to the Oder, and as Bestuscheff had behaved mysteri-



WILLIAM PITT.

ously during an illness of the Czarina Elizabeth, he was banished, and his command given to Fermor. The latter occupied East Prussia, and then invaded Brandenburg.



Frederick thereupon executed a masterly movement to the Oder, and defeated the

**August 25.** Russians in the murderous battle of Zorndorf. He then started to relieve his brother Henry in Saxony, but was surprised by Daun's superior army,

**October 14.** and lost all his artillery and many soldiers. Nevertheless he formed a junction with Henry, and drove the enemy once more out of Silesia and Saxony.

§ 442. But his strength was nearly exhausted. With difficulty he filled up the gaps in his army, and found money and supplies to continue the war. Maria Theresa on the other hand was constantly receiving armies and subsidies from Russia and



BATTLE OF LEUTHEN.

France. To prevent a junction of the Russians and the Austrians, Frederick marched

**Aug. 12, 1759.** to the Oder; but after defeating the Russians, he was himself utterly routed by the Austrians, under their able general Laudon. "All is lost," he wrote to his minister, "save the royal family; farewell forever." Dresden and nearly all of Saxony was lost to Prussia, but the discord between Austrians and Russians prevented their making use of their victory. Meanwhile the allies, under Ferdinand of Bruns-

**Aug. 1, 1759.** wick, had defeated the French army at Menden, driven them across the Rhine, and saved Westphalia and Hanover.



§ 443. Frederick was now compelled to act on the defensive. The loss of able officers and veteran soldiers could not even be supplied by Frederick's military genius. And to obtain money, he was obliged to debase the currency and to collect oppressive

*June, 1760.* taxes. The Austrians now occupied Silesia. Whereupon Frederick abandoned Saxony, and by his victory at Liegnitz, recovered Silesia. But the Austrians and Rus-

*August 15.* sians occupied Berlin, and devastated Brandenburg. Daun entrenched himself upon an eminence not far from the Elbe, and resolved to pass the winter in Saxony. Frederick attempted to storm his camp, and in

*Nov. 3, 1760.* the battle of Torgau, he conquered Saxony, and was able to make his winter quarters in Leipzig. But this victory over Daun cost him fourteen thousand of his bravest soldiers.

§ 444. In the year 1761 Frederick seemed lost. For when George III. ascended the English throne, the English refused to continue the war. Silesia seemed lost to Austria, and the province of Prussia to Russia. But in the hour of Frederick's extremity, the Czarina

*Jan. 5, 1762.* Elizabeth died, and her nephew Peter III., a passionate admirer of the Prussian king, obtained the Russian crown. This transformed the situation. Peter made a treaty with Frederick, and the Russian army joined the Prussian forces. The alliance however did not long endure.

Peter's innovations in church and state provoked the Russians, and his treatment of his wife Catharina provoked her to a conspiracy.

*July 12, 1762.* The Czar was murdered, and Catharina II. usurped the throne that belonged to her son Paul. The new Czarina recalled her troops from Prussia, but she confirmed a treaty of peace that had been made with Frederick. And the Russian general, before his departure, helped the Prussian King to another victory.

§ 445. The German people were now in desperation; their lands were wasted, their industry had perished, their prosperity was gone. Even Austria was so shattered, that Maria Theresa no longer opposed the termination of the war. A truce was agreed upon, and in the next February the

*Feb. 15, 1763.* long desired peace was agreed upon, in Hubertsburg. By this treaty Silesia was secured to Frederick, and Canada given to England. For the French



AUSTRIAN GENERAL AND OFFICER.  
(1760-1775.)



HANS JOACHIM VON ZIETHEN.

had been defeated in Quebec by the brilliant and heroic achievements of General Wolfe.

*c. The German Empire and Frederick's old age.*

§ 446. The German empire had sunk into disrepute, and was not even represented in the negotiations at Hubertsburg. The authority of the empire was a mere shadow, and the income of the emperor but a few thousand gulden. Four hundred and fifty



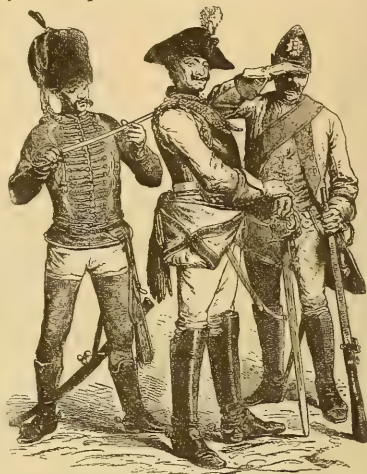
GEORGE III.

hereditary or elective princes and republican municipalities ruled in Germany, and left to the emperor nothing but the confirmation of agreements and the determination of rank. In war, German princes were frequently with the enemy, Bavaria almost always taking part with France. The Diet, which held its sessions in Regensburg after 1663, had lost all respect, as the sessions gave rise to nothing but debates, and these debates even were more concerned with trivial matters, than with the interests of the people. The judicial system of Germany was no better than the imperial administration. The

imperial court in Wetzlar was so slow, that years elapsed before a case could be decided. And while the archives accumulated, the parties often died. The judges were open to bribery, and every attempt of the

**Joseph II.** emperor to improve the system, met with the successful resistance of those immediately concerned. The lower courts made it almost impossible for the common man to obtain justice; the poor and the weak were helpless against the injustice and the oppression of the cunning and the strong. It was the golden age of lawyers and advocates.

§ 447. But while the empire was sinking, Prussia was rising to greater power and prosperity. The wounds of the Seven Years' War were healed by the King as rapidly as possible. He subsidized the farmers and the manufacturers in Silesia and in Brandenburg, remitted their taxes for a number of years, and relieved the lot of the peasant. He furthered the cultivation of the land, the care of forests, and the opening of mines; established colonies in waste places, and did his utmost to encourage industry and commerce. In his court expenses he was simple and economical, and the



HUSSAR OFFICER AND CAVALRY GRENADIER.  
(Prussia, 1760.)



HUSSAR AND INFANTRYMAN.

finances were so well regulated, that the treasury was soon relieved. Not until his later life, did Frederick adopt oppressive and severe measures. He then made a monopoly of coffee, tobacco, and salt, and in order to hinder smuggling, he appointed a multitude of French custom house officers, whose insolence made them hated by citizen and peasant. Church and school received the least attention from the King. The schools of smaller places were given to the veterans of his army, while the high-schools were frequently in the hands of Frenchmen. He cared but little for church and Christianity, although he established tolerance in his dominions. His nephew and **Frederick W. II.**, successor, Frederick William II., was a pietist, and issued an "edict of religion" which forbade the clergy departing a hair's breadth from the symbolical books, and which greatly limited



freedom of doctrine and of belief. The *judicial system* however was the object of Frederick's earnest solicitude. Torture was abolished, and all cruel and unusual punishments. Procedure was simplified, and the laws improved. The new code, now known as the Prussian common law, breathes the free mind of the great king. Frederick himself personally attended to the administration of justice, spurring on the indolent, and punishing the unscrupulous. Actively at work, from early morning till late at night, he was acquainted with all the circumstances of his kingdom, and as he did not hesitate at times to use his cane, he terrified the lazy and the unjust. In literature, Frederick was certainly unpatriotic, writing his letters and his works in the French language. In fact the character of this nation excited his constant admiration and imitation. French adventurers by the hundred found hospitality in Prussia, and all the regions of Germany were alive with the merry children of France. Parisian barbers and dancing-masters and swindlers were not seldom preferred in the appointments to positions at court, and in the state service.

§ 448. In his old age, Frederick was compelled to go to war again with Austria. In 1777 the Bavarian line of the house of Wittelsbach expired with Maximilian Joseph, and the electorate passed to the next heir, Carl Theodor, of the Palatinate. This prince had no lawful children, and had no love for Bavaria. He was easily persuaded by Joseph II. to recognize the claims of Austria to lower Bavaria, and to surrender these lands, upon the guarantee of certain advantages for his illegitimate children. Frederick II. tried to prevent this, at the diet of the empire; and when this failed, he

1778-1779. marched an army into Bohemia. This led to a war, in which the fighting was chiefly on paper, for both parties tried to prove themselves in the right, by learned treatises. Finally Maria Thersa

May 13, 1779. agreed to the peace of Teschen, in which the difficulty was peaceably adjusted. But some years after her death, Joseph II. made a second attempt to get possession of Bavaria, offering Belgium in exchange. This too Frederick sought to prevent. He established an alliance of princes to which most of the princes of Germany belonged. This alliance greatly increased the authority of the Prussian king. Meanwhile the empire neared its dissolution. Every prince was struggling for unlimited power; every one had his little court, in which he imitated Versailles in splendor and expenditure, in morals and manners, in language, literature, and art.

d. *The Intellectual Life of the German People.*

§ 449. If the division of Germany into small principalities was disadvantageous to its political power, it was beneficial at least to the development of German art and



OFFICER OF THE GUARD AND GRENADIER.

science. Many princes were patrons of literature and culture, inviting able men to their capitals and universities, and encouraging poets and scholars to great achievement. In the second half of the eighteenth century, at a time when Germany was losing its political significance, literature, poetry, science and intellectual life in general reached a high degree of excellence. This was especially true of poetry.

**Haller, 1777.** Haller, in his didactic poem, "The Alps" described the scenery and

**Hagedorn, 1754.** the people of his native country. Hagedorn, in his political "Nar-

**Gellert, 1769.** ratives," and Gellert, in his "Fables and Stories," imitated the elegant ease of the French, while they likewise revived the old German hymns.



GOETHE.

**Klopstock, Klop-**  
**1724-1803.** stock

wrote his *Messiah*, and by his odes, awakened in the people a feeling for Christianity, and a love for freedom. What he did in poetry, his great contemporaries, Se-

**Bach, 1750.** bastian

**Handel, 1759.** Bach and George Frederick Handel, did in music. Handel's *Oratorio "The Messiah"* can be called a great Christian epic in

**Lessing, "tones."**

**1729-1781.** Lessing,

the great thinker and critic, revealed, in his "*Hamburg Dramaturgy*" the weakness of the French dramatic literature,

and showed, by his own plays, "*Minna von Barnhelm*," "*Emilia Galotti*," and "*Nathan the Wise*" the path to genuine dramatic art. At the same time, he pointed out, in his *Laocoon*, the true relations of poetry and of plastic art. His con-

**Winkelman,** temporary, John Winkelman, reached the same result by different

**1717-1768.** methods. Not the least of Lessing's contributions to modern culture were his controversial writings, touching the *Wolfenbüttel* fragments.

**Herder,** Herder, a man of great brilliancy and poetic eloquence, discussed

**1744-1803.** the origin of language and of poetry, pointed out the beauties of oriental lore and the deep significance of popular songs, among the different races. He published also his "*Ideas toward the Philosophy of Human His-*

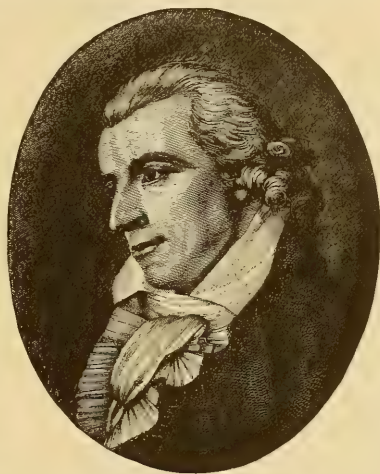
**Wieland,** 1733-1813. tory," which gave a mighty impulse to further investigation. Wieland, in his romances, taught, in easy language, a wise enjoyment of life, a doctrine especially grateful to the higher classes. At the same time, he renewed in his "Oberon" the romantic poetry of the Middle Ages. These three writers transformed the prose language of Germany. Lessing contributed strength, precision, and lucidity; Herder, inspiration and imagination; Wieland, ease and grace. And these

**Goethe,** 1749-1832. three were followed by the greatest genius of the century—Goethe, in whose creations are mirrored, not only his own intellectual life, but the mental movements of the German people. In the seventies, when the youth of Germany were despising the rules of art and of traditional morality, and praising the products of unbridled genius; when they were adoring the songs of the people, and worshipping Ossian and Shakespeare, the "Sorrows of Werther," a romance in letters, and the dramatic picture "Götz von Berlichingen," aroused a storm of enthusiasm. After Lessing and Winkelmann had awakened in Germany a taste for antique art, Goethe produced his classical dramas "Tasso" and "Iphigenia," composed in antique spirit and form, and alive with the impressions that he had received in

1786. his journey to Italy. His tragedy of "Egmont" reveals his nature and his powers in a different manner, especially in its pictures of popular life. His idyllic poem "Hermann and Dorothea" touches the exciting period of the French revolution and the sufferings of the emigrants. His romance of "William Meister" which portrays the life of the theater and his novel of "Elective Affinities" both belong to the new romantic time, which found delight in the miraculous the mysterious, and the supernatural.

In his "Truth and Poetry" Goethe pictured the course of his own life and culture. And in his colossal dramatic poem "Faust," he gave to posterity a picture of his innermost soul. The mighty storms that passed through the political world,

**Schiller,** 1759-1805. directed the thoughts of men to history. Frederick Schiller produced his historical dramas, in which he represented the stormy periods of domestic and foreign history, and by his enthusiasm for freedom, country, and human happiness, he struck the chord that responds most surely in the popular heart. His three first tragedies, "The Robbers," "Cabal and Love," and "Fiesco," belong to the stormy period of his youth. With "Don Carlos" he began a new and nobler period. During his residence in Jena, as professor of history, he busied himself with the "Thirty Years' War," with the "Revolt of the Netherlands;" and with his Eulogy of "Wallenstein." He also wrote the "Song of the Bell," a charming picture of human life, in its joys and sorrows. In the days of his illness and misfortune, he composed



SCHILLER IN HIS 30TH YEAR. (L. von Simonavoltz.)



"Maria Stuart," "The Maid of Orleans," the "Bride of Messina" and his splendid drama "William Tell." Schiller and Goethe became intimate friends, in spite of the differences of their natures; and their united activity marks the highest point in the achievements of German poetry.

§ 450. But theology, philosophy, history, the science of education, all shared this powerful impulse. Protestant theologians investigated the Bible, and expounded the

*Lavater*, Christian doctrine, each according to his bent. Some, like Lavater of

1741-1801. Zurich, sought to maintain the world, in the strictest belief, and to establish the conviction that man could reach God only by prayer. Others, like

*Nicolai*, desired to make the human mind the supreme judge in divine

1733-1811. things, and declared everything contrary to reason to be mere superstition. The former were called supernaturalists, the latter rationalists. A third party,

*Stolberg*, of which the philosopher Jacobi, and the poet, Count Stolberg, were

1750-1819. the leaders (like the mystics of the Middle Age) made religion a matter of feeling. But the greatest revolution was wrought in *philosophy*. Kant, the

*Kant*, great thinker of Königsberg, in his "Kutick" expounded a system

1724-1799. that soon made its way into all sciences, and excited and dominated

*Fichte*, the learned world of Germany. His disciple, Fichte, passed from the

1762-1814. critical idealism of Kant, to pure idealism, declaring, in his "Doctrine of Knowledge," that the ME or the EGO was first and original. In his system

of morality, Fichte made freedom and self-activity the aim of moral effort, and by his

"Addresses to the German Nation" he became renowned among his contemporaries,

*Schelling*, and to posterity. Fichte's pupil, Schelling, blended his idealism with

1752-1854. natural philosophy, and Hegel, in his dialectics, created a system that

*Hegel*, 1770-1831. exercised a powerful influence upon the intellectual development of

*Spittler*, Germany. Spittler wrote history with precision and clearness, and

1752-1810. John Mueller, of Switzerland, began a new era of historical composition,

*Mueller*, by his learning and his artistic skill in presentation. Basedow,

1752-1809. inspired by Rousseau of France, was the forerunner of Pestalozzi and

*Basedow*, Froebel. He established a model school at Dessau, and was followed

1723-1790. by Campe and Salzmann, who expounded and improved the methods

*Pestalozzi*, of teaching, upon which Pestalozzi founded his system of education

1740-1827. and of school life.



J. KANT.



J. H. PESTALOZZI.



J. G. FECHTE.

4<sup>th</sup> Book.





(pp. 542.)

BATTLE OF ISLY. (1844.)

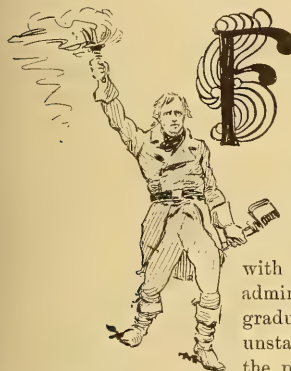




## A. THE HERALDS OF THE REVOLUTION.

### I. THE LITERATURE OF ENLIGHTENMENT.

§ 451.



**F**RANCE in the course of the eighteenth century, was shaken to its foundations by the prevailing literature.

Men of genius and of great endowments yet full of prejudice attacked religious belief and the institutions of the church, with sharp and skeptical criticism; assailed the medieval constitution of the state, and declared the existing conditions and forms of society to be antiquated abuses. Starting with the actual wrongs in the church, in the state, in the administration of justice and in social arrangements, they gradually undermined organized society and rendered unstable all laws and traditional usages; seeking to destroy the prescriptions, privileges, and prerogatives of rank and,

to make room for freedom and personal merit, they weakened also reverence for ancient maxims and rights and for legitimate authority; fighting against superstition, prejudice, and traditional opinion, they confused both faith and conscience, destroyed in the hearts of men their reverence and regard for sacred inheritance, and expected to see the happiness of the world bloom forth amid the ruins of the existing order. This was especially the case with Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau. For their writings, adorned as they were with the magic of beautiful diction and poetic form, were read by the whole of civilized Europe. Their paths were different but led them to the same results.

§ 452. Voltaire, a writer of great genius, who had distinguished himself in all the forms of literature, attacked with the weapons of sharp wit and keen intelligence, all prevailing opinions and existing institutions without inquiring what should take their place. In his dramatic and epic poems (Mahomet, The Henriad, The Maid of

Orleans), in his satires and romances, and in his historical and philosophical works, ("Essays upon the Morality and the Intelligence of Nations" "The Age of Louis XIV," "The History of Charles XII") he set forth his views and doubts, his thoughts and criticisms, his investigations and experiences. Religion and Church, Priesthood

and popular belief were attacked most violently, and although his mockery and wit destroyed men a prejudice and superstition, revealing the imbecility of the Church in all its nakedness, yet it robbed many of their religious feeling, planting in many souls doubt and unbelief, and substituting for the law of Christ, cold calculation and selfish egotism as the highest guides for human conduct.

**Voltaire**  
1694-1778.

Montesquieu, a more serious writer, pointed out what was faulty in the existing order, in the hope of its timely transformation. In the "Persian Letters" he attacked the church creed and the whole educational and governmental system of France in the mocking manner of Voltaire, and ridiculed in the same fashion the manners and social conditions of his contemporaries. In his "Considerations of the causes of the greatness and the decay of the Roman State," he sought to prove that patriotism and self-reliance make a state powerful, while despotism leads it to destruction. His third



VOLTAIRE.

work "The Spirit of Laws" exhibits the constitution of England as the best form of government for the people of to-day.

Jean Jacques Rousseau, son of a Genevese watchmaker, attacked existing conditions with enchanting pictures of a different society. After a youth of poverty and mistake, revealed with startling frankness in his "Confessions," he came, in writing a prize essay upon the "Influence of the Arts and Sciences upon Morality," to the fundamental proposition of all his thinking to wit: Refinement is the cause of all misery and all crime; nature produces only what is good but all degenerates in the hands of men. Hence the cry must be, "Back to Nature." Shaking from them the fetters of culture, education, and custom, men will soon return to happiness and health, to prosperity and righteousness. His writings are distinguished more for their feeling and power of representation than for depth and truth. The romance entitled "The New Heloise" contrasts the charms of a natural life with the restraints of

actual society; "Emile" is an attempt to base rational education upon nature and parental love, and is an atonement for sending his own children to the foundling asylum. The "Confession of a Savoyard Vicar," in which he contrasted a religion of the heart with the prevailing system, brought upon him condemnation and exile. In the "Social Contract," he expounded the equality of all men as the indispensable condition of every stable government: and an absolute democracy, with legislative popular assemblies, as the perfect political system. His writings contain, in spite of their fundamental errors and their paradoxes,

*Rousseau* many golden truths.

**1712-1778.** His words are the expression of a deep inward feeling; and hence produced immeasurable results. The places trodden by his foot or visited by him in the days of his exile, were revered by the next generation.

He re-awakened in France the feeling for nature, for simplicity and home; but also a yearning for the primeval state of liberty and equality, that could be stilled only by the destruction of existing institutions.



MONTESQUIEU.



D'ALEMBERT.

§ 453. The influence of these men throughout Europe was the greater because at that time Paris gave the key-note in everything, and the French literature and language were exclusively read and spoken in the higher circles. Princes like Frederic the Great, Gustavus III. of Sweden, Charles III. of Spain, Catharine II. of Russia, the greatest statesmen of all lands, and many influential persons were in correspondence with Voltaire and his like-minded contemporaries. Among these latter were the famous mathematician

*D'Alembert* and philosopher

**1717-1783.** D'Alembert and

*Diderot* the versatile and equally renowned Diderot. They were the creators of the Encyclopedia, which gave a survey of all human knowledge, at once clear, magnificent, and free, yet hostile to every nobler aspiration because it subordinated soul to sense. Quesnay, the court physician, published at the



same time his physioeratic doctrine, in which he attacked the hitherto prevailing mercantile system, and set forth the culture of the soil as the source of national wealth. The "Children of Light" were speedily victorious in all the lands of Europe. Toleration in Religion, the disappearance of superstition and prejudice, the reforms of Regents and ministers, the abolition of the order of the Jesuits, were all indications of a nobler time.

The Company of Jesus, (§ 352) whose chief object was to hinder the enlightenment of the people and who opposed all reforms and innovations, could no longer exist in a period, in which the whole civilized world cared more for humanity and brotherly love than for correctness of creed. When therefore Pombal, the Portuguese minister, 1759. closed the Jesuit colleges and sent the members of the order to Rome, and when all the Bourbon rulers of Europe followed his example, Pope Clement XIV., a sagacious pontiff, abolished the society. This compelled even Maria Theresa, who 1773. had long maintained the company in Austria, to consent to its dissolution, and the other Catholic lands of Germany obeyed the papal mandate.

All obeyed the Pope except the Jesuits themselves. To counteract their influence Adam Weisshaupt, Professor in Ingolstadt, founded the secret society of the *Illuminati*, 1777. the purpose of which was popular enlightenment. But their attacks upon the ex-Jesuits, monks, and clergy were soon arrested by the legal prosecutions begun against them by the Bavarian government.

## 2. REFORMING PRINCES AND MINISTERS.

§ 454. French Philosophy and Literature exercised the greatest influence upon princes and governments. The productions of French authors were read and admired in the higher circles of European society, and the young noblemen of Europe were sent to Paris to complete their education. No man of importance could expect recognition, until he had visited the intellectual circles of the French capital. The princes and statesmen of Europe eagerly sought the favor and friendship of French writers and philosophers. It is not wonderful therefore that what was set forth as true in speech and writing, should be applied in actual life. There was consequently an earnest effort to transform old institutions and forms, old customs and privileges. The spirit of the time showed itself in *religious affairs*, in the principle of toleration, in the abolition of the Society of Jesus, and of the Inquisition; and in the modification of those maxims and institutions that were especially dangerous to fraternal love and to human rights. But the new epoch was especially manifest in the humanizing of the *political system*: in the establishment of the equality of all men, with the consequent abolition of the privileges and burdens which had originated in the Middle Age. Serfdom was abolished in many lands: the claims of feudal service were abandoned; oppressive and dishonorable conditions were removed. New legal codes abolished the cruel punishments of former times, such as torture, mutilation, breaking upon the wheel, etc., and even criminals were conceded some few rights. In *political economy* the French writers set forth new principles, which were applied in many lands. According to these principles, money is the lever of political power. As a consequence, the wise governor will seek, by industry, and the use of natural forces, to produce the greatest possible money income. Agriculture, mining, woodcraft, were therefore encouraged; commerce, manufactures, and useful inventions promoted. But

on the other hand, the system of taxation was made exceedingly oppressive; royal monopolies were created, indirect taxes levied, lotteries established, and paper money issued.

About the same time Adam Smith, of Glasgow, published his "Wealth of Nations," a work that created a new epoch in political economy, by maintaining that the source of national wealth was the free development and movement of human energy.

§ 455. PORTUGAL. The first to reconstruct a state, according to these principles, was Pombal, in Portugal, the all powerful minister of Joseph Emmanuel.

An attempt to murder the King, which was ascribed to the Jesuits, led to the expulsion of the members of this order from Portugal, and to an attempt to educate the people by means of new schools and a circulation of books. The activity of this powerful minister extended to all parts of public life; he employed a German general to reorganize the army; he furthered agriculture and industry, striving to lift the people from their filth and ignorance. And when the Lisbon earthquake destroyed 30,000 houses, he worked heroically to heal the effects of the great disaster. Bold and resolute, Pombal was also cruel and arbitrary; the dungeons were filled with his opponents. So when these acquired their freedom, under the reign of the weak

Maria **†1816.** Maria, they united to overthrow the minister, and of course the wretched conditions of the earlier time soon returned.

§ 456. SPAIN. Aranda, the liberal minister of Charles III. in Spain, made similar attempts to transform both church and state. And when the Jesuits opposed his innovations, he arrested five thousand of them in a single night, hurried them on shipboard without distinction of age or rank, and transported them as criminals to the papal states. Their property was confiscated, their schools closed; the government then adopted measures for the education of the people and to improve the system of administration. German colonists were brought into the land, to cultivate barren sections of the country, and founded the colony called La Carolina. But in the later years of Charles III., the clergy and the Inquisition regained their influence, and destroyed or modified the new institutions.

§ 457. FRANCE. Choiseul, the French minister, was also a friend of advancement and of progress, but during the reign of the licentious king, Louis XV., reforms were impossible. When, however, Louis XVI. ascended the throne, he called into his ministry two men, who had both the will and the energy to heal the distressed State, by thorough-going changes. These two famous ministers were Turgot and Malesherbes. They proposed a new system of taxation. Nobility and clergy were to be no longer exempted, and the feudal relations were to be abolished or transformed. Civil rights were to be granted to all, without respect to person, rank, or religion. But their plans were wrecked, by the selfishness of the nobility and the clergy, and the blindness of the Court.

§ 458. DENMARK. Struensee, a German physician, acquired the absolute favor of Queen Caroline Mathilda, the wife of Christian VII., of Denmark.

**1766-1808.** The Queen, who was a sister of George III., of England, raised Struensee to the rank of count and of prime-minister. He was given such complete

authority, that all orders signed by him had the same validity as those signed by the King, and the all-powerful minister was thus enabled to establish many regulations for the relief of the citizens and of the peasantry, for the diminution of the power of the nobility, and for the improvement of judicial procedure. But he was, after all, a man without firmness, without courage, and without great intellectual power. His relation to the Queen was evilly interpreted, his introduction of the German language offended Danish pride, and the cowardice that he displayed, during an insurrection, made him contemptible. At a court ball Juliana, the stepmother of Christian VII., forced her way to the King's apartments, and induced him to sign his name to a number of warrants of arrests. Struensee and his friend Brandt were then hurried to prison, and

1772. after a summary trial, were found guilty of high treason, and beheaded.

Caroline Mathilda was divorced from the King, and died in prison, where she suffered

1775. three sorrowful years. Juliana acquired the regency, and abolished all the innovations. But when the Crown-prince Frederick came of age, he governed in the name of his father, and called to his assistance a man of great ability and integrity, Count Bernstorff.

§ 459. SWEDEN. Adolf Frederick, of Sweden, was so good-natured, that the

*Adolf Frederick.* oligarchy of the nobility acquired absolute control. The royal council

1711-1771. conducted all the affairs of state; and these people sold themselves to foreign powers, and served the courts that paid the largest price. The honor and the welfare of the land was to them of little moment. The two parties among them were known as the "hats" and "caps;" the "hats" were in the pay of France, and the "caps" in the pay of Russia. They hated each other bitterly, and the royal diet was often the scene of hostile attacks. The King had neither power nor authority. But

*Gustavus III.* when the popular Gustavus III. ascended the throne, he brought over

1711-1792. the Swedish army and the people to his side, and compelled the diet, by force, to consent to a change of the constitution. The executive authority was given back to the crown, and the council was reduced to a consulting body. The King was made commander-in-chief of the army, and given the appointment of all civil and military officers. Tax levies, declarations of war, and treaties of peace,

1788. required the consent of the Estates; but after some years, Gustavus freed himself from these limitations, and acquired absolute authority. But he used it at first to make great reforms in the administration of the state and of justice, and to advance the welfare of his people. Many of his creations were due, it is true, to a fondness for French customs, and a love of splendor. The founding of an academy, the erection of theatres and opera houses, and the like, caused the impoverished land great expense. His popularity decreased, for his love of the people was vanishing. Finally he made the manufacture of whisky a royal monopoly, and compelled the Swedes to buy from the royal distilleries. He undertook

*Gustavus III.* also a useless and expensive war against Russia, and was thinking of  
 † *March, 1792.* a war against France, when a conspiracy was formed, in consequence of which, he was mortally wounded at a masked ball, and died twelve days after.

§ 460. Kaunitz, the enlightened minister of Maria Theresa, of Austria, abolished many abuses, and introduced many reforms. The military system was reorganized, and the judicial system was greatly improved. New schools were established, and the finances regulated. But the Empress proceeded cautiously, sparing carefully the



national religion, national rights, and traditional usages. But her noble minded son, Joseph II., in his enthusiasm for freedom and humanity, acted with more speed, and less sagacity. He undertook a number of reforms that offended the clergy and the zealous friends of the Church, injured the privileged nobility, and disturbed the national prejudices of the races over which he ruled. He introduced toleration, giving to the confessors of the Lutheran, Calvinistic, and Greek doctrines the free exercise of their religion, and equal civil rights with the Catholics. He then diminished the number of monasteries, using the money thus acquired for the improvement of schools and the erection of public institutions. He limited pilgrimages and processions, and hindered the intercourse of his clergy with Rome. Pope

**1783.** Pius VI. even made a journey to Vienna, to dissuade the Emperor from these undertakings. Joseph received him with honor, but persisted in his plans. His reforms in civil relations were equally important. He established personal freedom by the abolition of serfdom, and civil equality, by the introduction of uniform taxation and equality before the law. His purposes were noble, but he paid too little regard to existing relations, usages, and prejudices. His enemies were able therefore to cast suspicion upon his actions, and to deprive him of the fruit of his reforms. When he attempted to introduce them into the Austrian Netherlands, when he erected a supreme court in Brussels, and sought to transform the University, insurrections broke out,

**1787.** which led to a refusal to pay taxes. The Austrian government was driven from the country, and the Netherlands were declared free and independent. This insurrection was the work of the clergy and the nobility, and a like movement

**1790.** occurred in Hungary also. This broke the Emperor's heart, and hastened his death. The germs of his disease had entered his system during the Turkish war, when, as the ally of Russia, he marched with his army, to the unhealthy regions of the Danube. Joseph's restless activity, the readiness with which he granted access, as well to the lowest as to the highest, and the severity with which he restrained the arbitrary conduct of his subordinates were never appreciated by his contemporaries. But posterity has learned to reverence his name, and to recognize the nobility

**Leopold II.** of his purposes and of his efforts. Leopold II., his brother and successor, restored the old conditions, and gradually pacified both Belgium and Hungary; the republicans of the Netherlands were reduced to obedience, at the point of the bayonet.

§ 461. Catherine II. had a long and splendid reign, during which even uncultivated Russia also felt the spirit of the age. She conducted a correspondence with Voltaire and his companions, called Diderot to St. Petersburg, and furthered the sciences and the arts. She improved the administration of justice, and founded academies and schools. But most of her reforms were mere illu-

**1787.** sions. Her famous journey to the Taurus, where artificial villages and cunningly arranged flocks and festivals along the route, gave the impression that the land was rich in products and in people, is a picture of her entire reign. She was a woman of violent impulses and excitable senses, who followed, in her private life, the wanton manners of the upper classes. St. Petersburg was conspicuous for an immorality, an extravagance, and a sensuality even worse than that of Paris. Gregor Orloff, one of the murderers of her husband, obtained both Catherine and the kingdom as his reward. But he was followed by a long line of other lovers, who were all loaded with

honors and riches. The office of favorite was given by the Empress like any other *Potemkin*. †1791. court position. Potemkin remained in favor longer than any other. For sixteen years he conducted the affairs of state, living during that time in fabulous



CATHERINE II. OF RUSSIA.

splendor, and openly parading an enormous wealth. He was a man of tremendous energy and boldness, who spared neither money nor human life. The Empress loved him for his barbarous strength, and was little concerned about the sufferings of the

1775. people. The insurrection of Pugatchieff, who gave himself out for Peter III., was soon suppressed. He was betrayed by a bosom friend, beheaded, and then hacked to pieces.

### 3. THE PARTITION OF POLAND, AND THE WARS BETWEEN RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

§ 462. The elective monarchy of Poland was the ruin of the land. Every time the throne became vacant, the nation was divided into parties, bribery prevailed, and the nobility acquired such privileges, that organized government became impossible. The crown was powerless. The royal diet became a byword because of its quarrels; and all power was in the possession of the armed unions. The nobleman alone was free, and had the right to use arms; the peasants were serfs and the slaves of abject ignorance. Commerce and trade were in the hands of avaricious Jews. Foreign powers now began to look, with greedy eyes, upon the helpless Polish kingdom. After

*Fred. Aug. III.*, the death of Frederick Augustus III., Stanislaus Poniatowski, a former

† 1763.

*Poniatowsky.*

1764-1795.

† 1798.

lover of the Empress Catherine II., was chosen king, amid the clash of Russian sabres. Poniatowski knew literature better than he knew

men, and could choose pictures better than he could govern a kingdom.

§ 463. But the Polish dissidents, Protestants, Socinians, and Greek Christians, now demanded the restoration of their civil and religious privileges. Their demands, although supported by Russia, Prussia, and most of the Protestant governments, were rejected by the Polish nobility. The dissidents thereupon united with the liberals

1767.

and the discontented, to form the "Confederation of Radom." They sought the help of Russia, and compelled the Polish Diet to grant them religious toleration, a share in the offices, and their confiscated churches. Surrounded by Russian troops, the members of the diet gathered beneath the portrait of the Empress Catherine, and signed the "act of toleration," and to complete their humiliation, they agreed that no change should be made in the existing constitution, without the consent of Russia. These proceedings outraged the feelings of Polish patriots, and aroused

1768.

the hatred of the Catholic zealots. These formed the "Confederation of Bar" in order to emancipate Poland from Russian authority, and to deprive the dissidents of their restored privileges. France supported them with money and officers. The conflict between the two confederations was hot and bitter. But the Russian armies decided it in favor of the dissidents. Bar and Cracow were stormed, and the Catholics driven into Turkish territory. The Russians pursued them beyond the frontier, and did not refrain from murder, conflagration, and plunder, even in a foreign country.

§ 464. These outrages provoked Turkey to declare war upon Russia, and for six years, eastern Europe suffered terribly. The Russians conquered

*First Turkish*

*War.*

1268-1274.

Moldavia and Walachia, and stormed Bender, while the Turks devastated Greece with fire and sword, so that whole districts were covered with ruins and with corpses. The Turkish fleet was set on fire and destroyed; Moscow was desolated by a pestilence, and Poland, by the raging civil war. The impotence and discord of Poland led finally to its partition. Frederick II. and Joseph II. conferred together in person, and Prince Henry of Prussia then visited St. Petersburg to

*Aug. 5, 1772.* make terms with Russia. A treaty of partition was agreed upon, by



which each of these three kingdoms annexed a part of Poland. The diet protested, and proved easily that the pretended rights of the three powers were of no value. The nobles protested, solemnly, before God and the world, against the outrage; but Russian soldiers compelled them to consent. The fruitful regions along the Vistula passed over to Prussia. Galicia, and the rich mining regions of Wilieka, went to Austria; and the lands along the Dwina and the Dnieper went to Russia. The establishment of a "Perpetual Council," under the influence of Russia, robbed the Polish king of the last remnant of authority. The Russian ambassador in Warsaw was, from this time on, the real ruler of Poland. Shortly after the partition, Russia made peace with Tur-

*July 21, 1774.* Key, acquiring a free passage through the Dardanelles, and the protectorate of Moldavia, Wallachia, and the Crimea.

§ 465. But Russia was not yet satisfied. She next compelled the Khan of Tary to lay down his authority, and Potemkin conquered the Crimea and the other lands on the Black Sea. He then colonized the barren Steppes with Germans, and created the commercial city of Odessa. But the happiness and the prosperity of the inhabitants disappeared with their freedom. The once splendid Canvas cities had become gypsy camps, and the stone houses and palaces had fallen to ruins.

§ 466. But this proximity of Russia alarmed the Porte. In a short time another terrible war occurred between Russia and Turkey. The Emperor Joseph joined the Russians, in order to share in spoils of conquests, and the Russians were again victorious. In the midst of winter, Potemkin and Suwaroff continued their bloody and terrible triumph. The way to Constantinople was open before them, when England and Prussia suddenly assumed a threatening attitude, and Gustavus of Sweden attacked the Russians by sea and land. Poland also thought the time propitious to reconquer her liberty.

*Second Turkish War, 1787-1792.*  
*Dec. 22, 1790.* They dissolved the "Perpetual Council," changed their elective monarchy into a hereditary kingdom, and framed a new constitution, according to modern ideas, in which executive, legislative, and judicial powers were kept distinct and separate.

§ 467. This constitution was greeted with the applause of all Europe. Frederick William II. congratulated the Poles, and even Catharine of Russia concealed her vexation; but party spirit and selfishness soon destroyed the good work. Many of the grandees were dissatisfied with the change. They formed a party for the preservation of "Polish freedom" as they called the old constitution, and sought the protection of the Russian Empress. Catharine, having just concluded the peace of Jassy with the

*Jan. 1792.* Turks, was glad enough to march her armies into Poland. The patriots now appealed to Prussia, but the Prussian cabinet preferred an alliance with Russia, to an alliance with the Poles, especially as the new constitution was marked with French political ideas and forms. But the Poles did not despair. Thaddeus Kosciuszko, who had fought in America under Washington, placed himself at the head of the patriots, and marched against the Russians. But discord, treason, dissension, and indecision, baffled all his undertakings. The King, who had hitherto been an enthusiastic supporter of the new constitution, lapsed into his old weakness, and, alarmed by a letter of the Empress, forbade all further hostilities against the Russians. The patriots were compelled to lay down the sword, and to abandon their native country

in order to escape the cruel mockery of their enemy. The "Perpetual Council" and the old constitution were restored.

§ 468. But now came a new chapter of violence. In April, 1793, Prussia and

**1793.** Russia declared that they felt compelled to confine Poland to narrower limits, in order to bridle the excitement which had spread from France among the Poles, and in order to preserve the neighboring states from the contagion of democracy. The Polish diet protested in vain against this new partition. But Russian

**July 22, 1793.** troops surrounded the place of their assembly, arrested their boldest speakers, and suppressed all opposition.

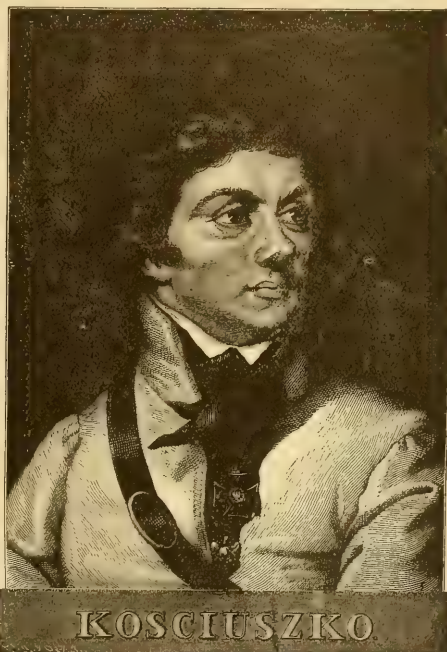
The deputies acquiesced in sullen silence, and bowed to the will of the great powers. By this second partition of Poland, the most important districts of

**Oct. 14, 1793.** the East fell to Russia, and the two cities of Danzig and Thorn, together with greater Poland, were annexed to Prussia. The remnant of the monarchy comprised only about one-third of its former territory.

§ 469. Russia and Prussia now garrisoned the partitioned land, and Catharine's ambassador, the harsh and brutal Igels-tröm, ruled in Warsaw with defiant insolence. But the Polish national spirit awoke once more. A secret conspiracy spread its branches over the entire land. Kosciuszko, and the exiled patriots, returned and took the lead of the movement, of which Cracow was the centre. As absolute commander

of the national forces, Kosciuszko issued a proclamation to the people, in which he set forth the purposes of the conflict, namely—the restoration of the independence of Poland, the recovery of the stolen territories, and the establishment of constitutional

**April 17, 1794.** government. The insurrection soon reached the capital. On Palm Thursday, the Russian garrison in Warsaw was attacked; partly slain and partly captured. Igels-tröm's palace was set on fire, and four of the aristocratic adherents of Russia were hanged on the gallows. The whole land followed the example of the capital. The King sanctioned the uprising of the outraged nation, and everything promised a successful issue. The Prussians, who had marched to the vicinity of Warsaw,



were compelled to a hasty and disastrous retreat by the brave generals Kosciuszko, Dombrowski, and Joseph Poniatowski (the King's nephew).

§ 470. But the success of the Poles, sharpened the enemies' appetite for vengeance. In accord with Austria and Prussia, Catharine sent her most dreaded general, Suwaroff, to Poland. Kosciuszko was compelled to yield to the superior force of

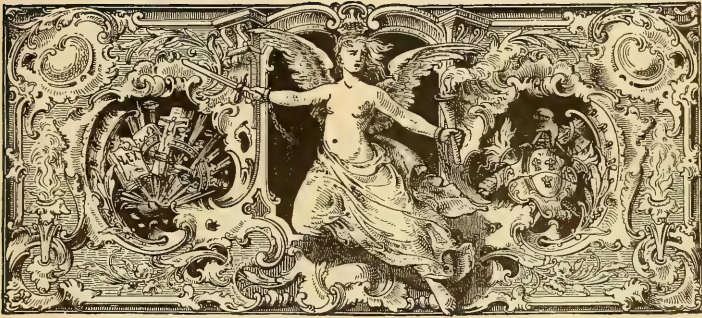
*Oct. 10, 1794.* his bold antagonist. In an unsuccessful battle he fell from his horse with the cry, "This is the end of Poland!" and was led away a prisoner. Upon the 4th of November, the suburban city of Praga was stormed by the Russians. Twelve thousand non-combatants were slain or drowned in the Vistula. The cries of the wounded and of the murdered terrified the inhabitants of the capital, and made them ready to surrender. On the 9th of November, Suwaroff entered Warsaw in triumph. Stanislaus Poniatowski was compelled to abdicate, and to live in St. Petersburg, upon a pension contemptuously granted him by the Russians. A few months later, the

*Jan. 1795.* three powers declared that they had determined, out of consideration for the welfare of their subjects, and owing to their love of peace, to partition Poland once more. This time the South, with Cracow, was given to Austria; the land west of the Vistula, with its capital Warsaw, fell to Prussia, and the lion's share went of course to Russia. Thus perished the once famous and mighty Poland, a sacrifice to domestic discord and to foreign violence. Kosciuszko was set at liberty, and died in Switzerland, in October, 1817.



STANISLAUS I., OF POLAND.

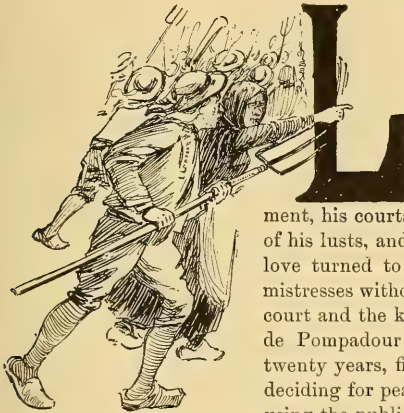




## B. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

### 1. THE LAST YEARS OF ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

§ 471.



LOUIS XV. was at first so popular that his

*Louis XV.* people called him the “well-

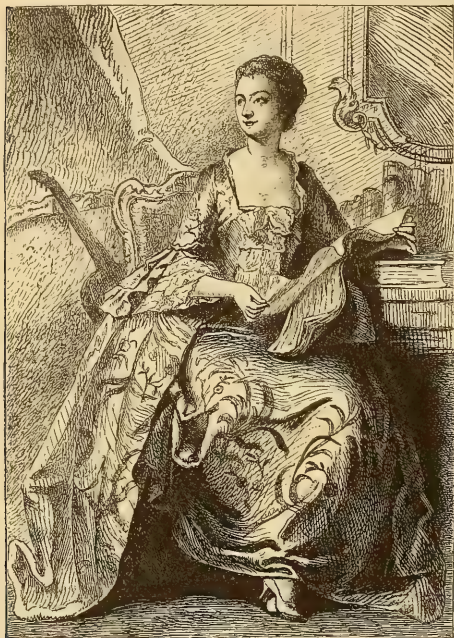
† 1774 beloved”; when disease threatened his life the whole land bemoaned him and when he recovered, they celebrated his recovery with the wildest delight. But as the King abandoned himself to shameless debauchery, and his govern-

ment, his courts of justice and his army, to the panderers of his lusts, and the companions of his revels, this popular love turned to hatred and contempt, particularly when mistresses without manners, and without shame, ruled the court and the kingdom. Among the latter, the Marquise de Pompadour († 1764) guided the affairs of France for twenty years, filling the highest offices with her favorites, deciding for peace or for war, according to her caprice, and using the public treasury as her private purse, so that she

bequeathed millions to her heirs even after her life of splendor and luxury. She and her creatures pampered the baser appetites of the King, that they might reign without restraint. Yet the Pompadour was possessed of dignity and tact; but the Countess Dubarry, a woman of the lowest class, who succeeded to her place, took from the royal court the last shred of decency and respect.

§ 472. This government of lust and extravagance, together with the senseless and costly wars in Germany, exhausted the royal treasury, increased the public debt, and the taxes of the people. All revenues being drawn from the merchants, the artisan and the peasant classes, they were of course exceedingly oppressive to the poor and to those of moderate means. And to their exasperation at the exemption of the

nobility and clergy, was added their hatred for the "Farmers of the Revenue" with their cruel and greedy agents. The land and income taxes, the poll tax, the house and window taxes, the tolls on the highway, the tax on salt, the tithes, the contributions



MARQUISE DE POMPADOUR.

in labor, the feudal payments, robbed the lower classes of the fruits of their labor, and prevented the development of a prosperous commonwealth. The Parliament of Paris (which was a bench of judges) had acquired the right to register all decrees and edicts of taxation, and had come to hold that none was valid without its approval. This contention led to repeated quarrels between the parliament and the royal ministry, which ended usually in a "bed of justice," that is, an arbitrary command of the king given in person to register the ministerial rescript.

Not only the tax decrees, but the arbitrary letters of arrest (*lettres de cachet*), were a subject of strife between the parliament and the government. These terrible sealed letters were obtained easily by all those having any influence at court, and by means of them any one could be imprisoned without hearing and trial. For ten years

the Parliament of Paris fought against court and ministry, until Louis XV, tired of their obstinate resistance, reorganized the Parliament and imprisoned the recalcitrant members. But his successor restored their suspended prerogatives.

§ 473. Louis XV was carried away by a terrible disease in the midst of his sinful career: he left the state treasury exhausted, the land burdened with debt, the public credit ruined, and the people oppressed with taxes. Under such difficult cir-

cumstances, Louis XVI ascended the throne. He had a good heart but a weak brain; he wished to improve the condition of the people, but had neither money nor sagacity for the necessary measures; he tolerated the frivolity and extravagance of his brothers, and permitted his wife, Marie Antoinette, the highly cul-

tivated daughter of Maria Theresa, to interfere in State affairs, and to exercise great influence upon the court and the ministry. Proud and aristocratic toward the people, she was soon the object of popular hate; for all severe measures were ascribed to her interference and the liberty she assumed in private life

was interpreted to her dishonor. Even in the famous affair of the "Diamond Necklace," in which certain swindlers made use of her name to get possession of a priceless ornament, she was believed by many to be guilty.

The lack of money and the disorder in the State finances could be remedied only by taxation of the nobility and of the clergy; by extensive reforms in the royal administration, and by economy in expenditure. Turgot and Malesherbes desired

such reforms, but Louis XVI had neither the will nor the strength for such decisive measures, and the court of Versailles had no mind for economy. Necker, a banker from Geneva, who succeeded Turgot as minister of finance, found it impossible therefore to cover the deficit in the treasury, and his publication of a paper upon the financial condition of France made him so unpopular with the court and the aristocracy,

Necker

1777-1781. he was

compelled to resign. The American war was at this time increasing the financial distress and awakening a longing for freedom and for republican institutions. It was therefore a great misfortune for France that, at such a critical moment, the frivolous and extravagant Calonne assumed control of the finances; for Calonne departed from Necker's policy of economy, met cheerfully the wishes of the Queen and the demands of the Princes, and deceived the country with splendid promises. Brilliant fêtes were celebrated in Versailles, and Calonne's talents were lauded to the skies. Soon, however, his promises proved to be idle wind; he determined to avert impending bankruptcy by calling together an assembly of notables consisting of nobility, clergy, officers of State, distinguished judges, and representatives of certain cities. But Calonne found in this assembly violent opponents, instead of his expected friends. They rejected his plan of





**February** general taxation, including the nobility and the clergy, and threatened  
**1787.** him with a criminal process so that he resigned his office and betook himself to London.

§ 474. Calonne's successor in the administration of the finances, Lomenie de

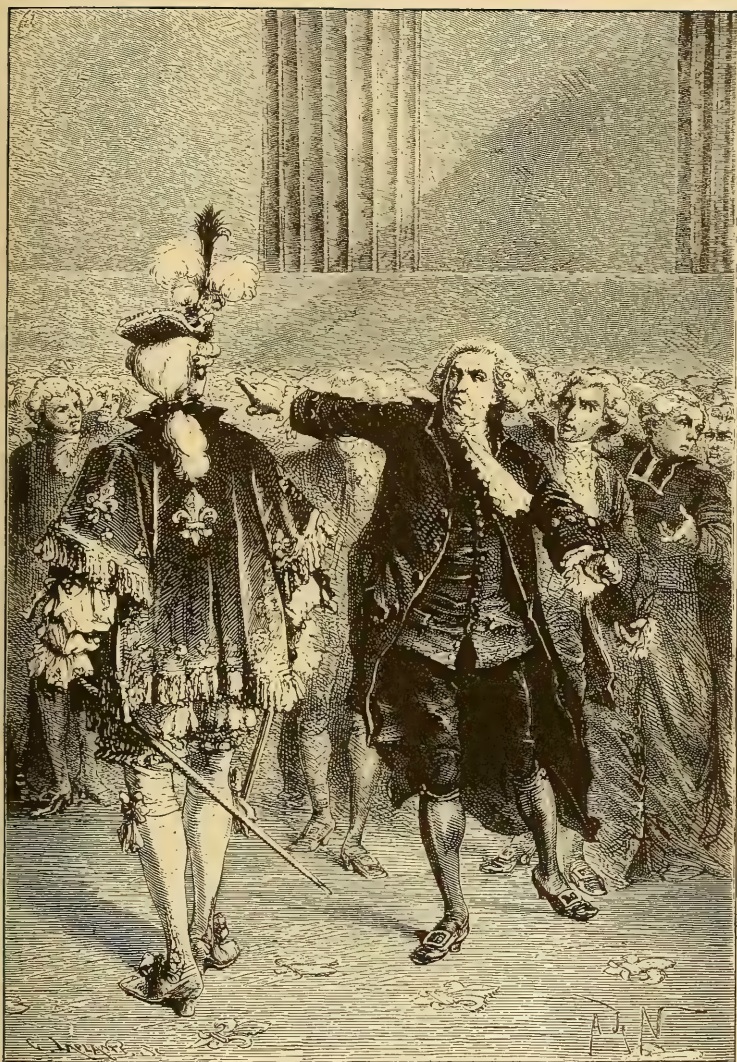


Brienne, had a difficult post. In order to cover the deficit in the treasury, he must resort to the usual means, increase of taxation and loans; but the Parliament of Paris opposed him so vigorously that the ministry, having tried in vain "a bed of justice," determined to arrest the boldest members and to banish them to Troyes. This step

**August, 1787.** caused great excitement among the people, which induced the ministry to make terms with the exiled members of the parliament, and to permit the resumption of their sessions. But the spirit of resistance had become too powerful and had already seized the people. They gathered in crowds about the hall of meeting, cheering the speakers of

the opposition and hooting the party of the ministry. They burned daily the hated minister of finance in effigy, and made known their feelings in different cities by angry tumults. In the streets and in the parliament resounded the cry "The States General!" In vain the ministry attempted, by transforming the parliament into a superior and several inferior courts, to break down the opposition. A new spirit had come over the people which was bound to triumph. Brienne was compelled to retire, as the lack of funds had become so great that all cash payments were suspended, and national bankruptcy appeared inevitable. The popular Necker was now called to the ministry a second time. He immediately pacified the people by withdrawing the edicts against the parliaments, and by preparing to call the States general. But a question soon arose that brought him into

**August**  
**1788.**



"GO TELL YOUR MASTER THAT WE ARE HERE BY THE AUTHORITY OF THE PEOPLE, AND CAN BE  
DRIVEN HENCE ONLY AT THE POINT OF THE BAYONET." (A. de Neuville.)

(pp. 559.)



difficulty with the parliament and a second assembly of notables. The latter thought that the new assembly should, in the number of representatives and in the method of voting, follow the estates of 1614, while Necker wished to give the third estate a double representation and to vote by poll instead of by estates. In this opinion he was supported by the most talented leaders of the people in a multitude of pamphlets ("What

**Dec. 1788.** is the third estate?" by Abbe Sieyès) Necker's opinion prevailed. A royal edict fixed the number of noble and clerical members at three hundred each, that of the commons at six hundred, and the following May as the time to convene. "Now comes my time," said Mirabeau, who had learned the effects of *Lettres de Cachet* in the prison at Vincennes. Repulsed by the nobility, he purchased a cloth store and appeared as candidate for the third estate. Necker was still the hero of the day, but he was not the pilot of a ship of state. He was only driving before the wind.

## 2—THE CONSTITUTIONAL ASSEMBLY—(May 1789 to Sept. 1791.)

§ 475. When May came, the representatives of the three estates convened in Versailles,—among them the most talented and cultivated men of



FRENCH CITIZENS. (1790–1792.)

France. The third estate, offended by the court at the opening, began to quarrel in the first sessions with the two privileged estates. The latter demanded separate chambers, but the commons pressed for one chamber and for a vote by poll. After a contest of several weeks the third estate, which was presided over by the astronomer Bailly, but led by the conspicuous talents of Sieyès and Mirabeau, de-

**June 17.** clared itself to be THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. Thereupon it was joined by members of the other estates. At the same time it determined that existing taxes should be collected only so long as the estates should not be dissolved.

These doings disquieted the court and suggested to it the idea of giving the nation a constitution, thereby abolishing the States-general. To this end a Royal sitting was

appointed and the assembly hall was closed. The representatives met together

**June 20.** in the empty hall of the tennis-court and swore a solemn oath, with up-lifted hand, not to separate until they had given the kingdom a new constitution. When the tennis-court was closed they held a session in the church of St. Louis. The royal sitting took place on the twenty-third of June, but neither the speech of the king nor the proposed constitution was satisfactory. At the close of the session Louis commanded the assembly to disperse. Nobility and clergy obeyed but the commons sat motionless, and as the master of ceremonies called upon them to leave the room, Mirabeau reminded the assembly of their oath and cried to the court official, "Go tell your master that we are here by the authority of the people, and

**June 27, 1789.** can be driven hence only at the point of the bayonet." The feeble king did not venture to meet this determined resistance with force; on the contrary he advised the nobility and the clergy to unite with the commons.



## § 476. STORMING THE BASTILLE.

Meanwhile the excitable population of Paris were kept in continual uproar by newspapers, pamphlets, and inflammatory speeches. In the public parks, in coffee houses, in wine rooms, and especially at the Palais Royal, the dwelling of the licentious, ambitious, and wealthy Duke of Orleans, violent speeches were made by agitators and demagogues about popular freedom, human rights, equality of all ranks, etc., and the assembled throngs were urged on to battle for a new era. The most gifted of these popular orators was a young lawyer, Camille Desmoulins. Even the soldiers stationed at the capital were carried away by this enthusiasm for liberty, and became members of the newly organized national guard. The administration of the city was turned over to a democratic municipality, of which Bailly was the Mayor. The court alarmed at the increasing excitement, determined, for its protection, to bring to Versailles some German and Swiss regiments. This was declared by the leaders of the people to mean the use of force against the national assembly. Suddenly the rumor ran through Paris that Necker was dismissed and banished, and a favorite of the Queen appointed in his place. A general uprising followed. Noisy throngs wearing the national cockade (red, white, blue,) marched through the streets; the bells were rung and the armories and gun-shops plundered. Tumult and confusion prevailed

*July 14, 1789.* everywhere. On the fourteenth of July the mob, having taken thirty

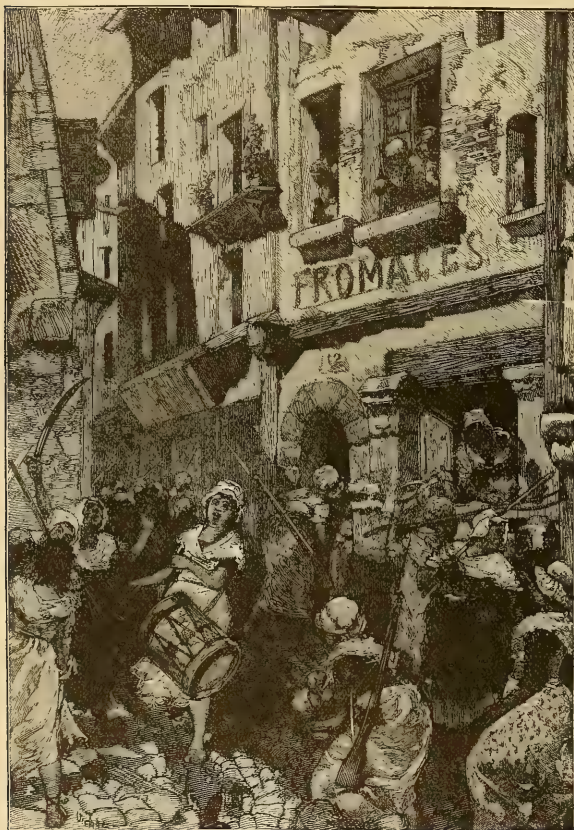
STORMING THE BASTILLE. (*F. Lix.*)

thousand muskets and some cannon from the Hotel des Invalides, stormed the Bastille, an old castle used as royal prison. The commandant Delaunay and the garrison of seven men fell a sacrifice to the rage of the mob. Their heads, stuck upon poles, were carried through the streets of the city, and several hated aristocrats were murdered. The banished Necker was called back, and his journey through the cities and villages of France resembled the triumph of a victorious hero.

In this joyful reception of the minister, the nation bore witness of its enthusiasm for freedom and its hatred for the court and the aristocracy. Lafayette, who had fought for America's freedom, was named General of the national guard, and while the king came to Paris and showed himself to the assembled people, standing on the balcony of the town hall with a cockade in his hat, the Count D'Artois and several noblemen of the first rank, like Condé and Polignac, left their country in dread anticipation of coming events.

#### § 477. THE NEW ORDER.

After the taking of the Bastille, law and authority were powerless in France. The people no longer paid their tithes to the church and tolls to the nobility, and revenged themselves for their long oppression by devastating their castles by fire and plunder. As the news of these events reached the national assembly, it was proposed that the privileged classes should prove, by conspicuous deed, their willingness to lighten the burdens of the people, and to this end should renounce



WOMEN ON THE ROAD TO VERSAILLES. (*Vierge.*)

voluntarily all their feudal revenues. This proposition created a storm of enthusiasm and self-denial. No one halted: ranks, cities, and counties vied with each other in

**August 4, 1789.** bringing the largest sacrifices to the common weal. This was the famous fourth of August when, in one excited sitting, all tithes, ground-rents, tolls, and the like were abolished, the soil declared free, and the equality of all citizens, before the law, proclaimed. These resolves, and the laws and arrangements necessary to make

them effective, produced, in a short time, a complete reorganization of all existing conditions. The church lost its wealth and was subordinated to the state; cloisters and Monastic orders were abolished, the priests paid by the state, the bishoprics rearranged, and religious freedom guaranteed. But as the Pope refused to permit the clergy to take the required oath to the new constitution, the French priests were soon divided into jurors and non-jurors. The latter were deprived of their places and subjected to many persecutions, though they enjoyed the confidence of the faithful. The nobility sacrificed not only their privileges and the greatest part of their revenues, but lost also the insignia of their rank by the abolition of all titles, coats of arms, orders, and the like. And that the old conditions might be absolutely abolished, France was divided into departments and arrondissements, a new judicial system with juries was introduced, new weights, new measures, new coin, and finally a constitutional system in which the rights of the King were limited beyond reason, and the making of laws committed to a single chamber to be chosen by universal suffrage.

#### § 478. THE KING AND THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY AT PARIS.

As the King hesitated to proclaim the declarations of the assembly as law, the rumor spread that he intended to dissolve it by violence. This rumor was strengthened by calling the Flemish regiment to Versailles, and by a festival that the body guard gave to the newly arrived officers. During the banquet the company, excited by wine, indulged in foolish speeches, toasts, and songs; busy tongues soon carried them to Paris, and the excited people, already suffering from famine, quickly

**OCT. 5.** made their anger known. On the fifth of October great crowds, mostly women, marched to Versailles, in order to obtain from the King relief from famine and a change of his residence to Paris. The King tried to quiet them, but one wing of the castle was stormed, and the Queen compelled to fly.

The next day the King and his family entered Paris, under the escort of this terrible mob, and took up their residence in the palace of the Tuileries. The national assembly soon convened, and the riding-school, in the vicinity of the palace, was prepared for their sittings. Power came more and more into the hand of the lower classes, who were kept in continual excitement by newspaper writers and demagogues, and urged to hatred against the court and the aristocrats. Among these demagogical journals, the most violent was "The Friend of the People" edited by the insolent horse-leech Marat, from Neufchatel in Switzerland. The democratic clubs now acquired greater importance and extent, especially the JACOBINS, which had branches in all the cities of France. The members of this club wore, as a badge, the red caps of the galley convicts and strove for a republic, in which all the citizens should be free and equal. The Club of the CORDELIERS had for its leaders, the boldest men of the revolution, like Danton and Camille Desmonlins. The Constitutional Club (Fenillants) on the other hand, to which Lafayette belonged, decreased in importance every day. The names of these clubs were derived from the cloisters in which they held their sitting.

§ 479. *The Feast of Federation. The Flight of the King.* On the anniversary **JULY 14, 1790.** of the storming of the Bastile, a magnificent festival was held in the field of Mars. It was termed the "Festival of Federation." Talleyrand, the Bishop of Autun, and also a member of the National Assembly, marched, at the head of three hundred white-clad priests, to the altar of France, and consecrated the national tri-



color. Lafayette, in the name of the National Guard, the President of the National Assembly, and finally the King himself, swore fidelity to the constitution. The countless multitude lifted up their hands, and repeated the oath of allegiance, while the Queen, carried away by enthusiasm, lifted the Dauphin in her arms, and joined in the general acclaim. But this was the last happy day of the King, whose situation grew rapidly worse. Necker, unequal to the difficulties of the hour, abandoned France, and returned to Switzerland. Mirabeau threw himself upon the side of the court, and opposed, with all the might of his eloquence, any further limitation of the royal authority, because he held that a constitutional monarchy was the best government for France. But unfortunately for the King, the great orator died suddenly, in the forty-

*April 2, 1791.* second year of his age, exhausted by his dissolute life, and by fatigue and overwork. He was the last support of the throne. Louis XVI. now lost all self-possession. He refused to accept as his confessor, a priest who had taken the oath of allegiance, and also to declare the emigrants, who were stirring up war against France, to be traitors to their country. He was suspected of disloyalty to the constitution, and the more this suspicion gained ground among the people, the more dangerous became the situation of the King. Finally, in desperation, he determined to escape from the kingdom. Bouillé, a resolute general in Lorraine, was taken into the secret, and promised to support the plan with his troops. Issuing a proclamation, in which he protested against all his own acts, since October 1789, as the result of compulsion, the King escaped from Paris with his family. But the undertaking miscarried. Louis was

*June 21, 1791.* recognized, detained in Varennes, and, at the command of the National Assembly, brought back to Paris. The royal authority was then suspended until Louis, at the end of September, took an oath to support the new constitution, and proclaimed it to the French people.

3. *The Legislative Assembly and the Overthrow of the Monarchy, (1st. of Oct. 1791, to 20 Sept., 1792.)*

§ 480. *The Girondists.* The members of the national assembly had excluded themselves from the new legislature. As a result, the members of the legislative assembly were nearly all republicans. But they were divided into a radical and a moderate party. The radicals occupied the high seats in the rear of the hall, and were called "The Mountain." The Moderates were spoken of sometimes as "The Plain," but mostly as the Girondists, because most of their leaders were from Bordeaux, and from the department of the Gironde. The Girondists gathered around the minister Roland and his brilliant and high-minded wife, and among them were men of great eloquence and civic virtue, like Vergniaud, Lanjuinais, Barbaroux, Brissot, Condorcet, and others. The Girondists were in the majority; hence the ministry composed of Roland, Dumouriez, and others, belonged to this party. The attention of the government and of the assembly was especially and at once directed to the non-juring priests and the emigrants. These were bent upon overthrowing the new order of things; the priests by sowing hatred and discontent among the French people, and the emigrants by urging foreign powers to invade France. The assembly determined therefore to arrest all priests who had not taken the oath, and to declare the emigrants at Coblenz guilty of high treason, confiscating at the same time, their estates and revenues. But the King vetoed both these acts of the legislative assembly. This veto was ascribed to the

secret hopes of the court in the intervention of foreign powers. The people consequently became more hostile. They knew that the Queen was in negotiation with her brother, the German emperor, and that she looked upon the emigrant nobility for support and salvation. It was manifest too, that war was impending, as the Emperor Leopold and King Frederick William of Prussia, after an interview in the castle of Pillnitz, near Dresden, had determined to put their armies in the field, and to require the French government to compensate German princes and noblemen, for their lost tithes and feudal privileges, to restore to the Pope his possessions in Avignon, and to frame the constitution as King Louis himself had sketched it in 1789. The French

*April 20, 1792.* cabinet answered this demand, with a declaration of war upon Austria and Prussia, to which the wretched King consented with tears. To protect the capital and the national assembly against every attack, twenty thousand national guards were summoned from the southern provinces, to whom was committed the defence of Paris. But Louis refused to sanction this measure. The ministry of the Gironde thereupon resigned, and Madame Roland published a letter, reproaching the King for his folly and misconduct. Under these circumstances it was easy to stir up insurrection. On the

*1792.* 20th of June, a mob, armed with pikes, gathered at the Tuileries, to compel the King to sign the decrees against the non-juring priests, and for the defence of the city by the national guard. But Louis remained firm. He defied all threats, and bore patiently the mockery of the people, who placed upon his head the red cap of the Jacobins. The dilatory arrival of Pétion, with the citizen guard, freed him finally from the intolerable situation.

§ 481. These events were the prelude to the terrible tenth of August. War had already broken out, to the great satisfaction of the Prussian officers, who talked of a military "promenade" to Paris, in which they expected to gain great honor with little effort. The Prussians marched into Lorraine, under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick. An Austrian army assisted him, and 12,000 emigrants burned with eagerness to overthrow the "lawyers' government," and to revenge them-

*Aug. 10, 1792.* selves upon their adversaries. The Duke issued a proclamation full of threats against the National Assembly, the City of Paris, the National Guard, and all the French who favored the Revolution. This insolent proclamation excited a terrible hatred among the French, for the emigrants and their protectors. And the Jacobins used this excitement to overthrow the King. They invited crowds of rabble, and even galley slaves, from all the maritime cities, to come to Paris. They established a committee of safety, and stirred up the rough inhabitants of the suburbs to a decisive blow. At midnight, on the 10th of August, the alarm bells were rung. An enormous crowd moved first to the city hall (Hôtel de Ville) in order to proclaim a new municipal government, and then marched to the royal palace, which was defended by nine hundred Swiss, and by the National Guard of Paris under Mandat. Mandat was determined to meet the threatening mob with force; the democrats therefore resolved upon his destruction. He was ordered to the city hall, and was murdered on his way thither. The National Guard, uncertain what to do, and dissatisfied with the many nobility present in the palace, rapidly dispersed. The crowd became more violent; cannon were trained upon the castle; the men with pikes urged their way into every part of the palace, and the crowd demanded the deposition of the King. Louis suffered himself to be persuaded to seek protection for himself and family, in the hall of the Legislative

Assembly, where they remained sixteen hours in a narrow apartment. The King had hardly left the palace, before the human billows broke over its defenders. The Swiss guard resisted bravely, and defended the passages. When the assembly heard the rattle of musketry, they compelled the terrified King to prohibit his guard from firing. The faithful protectors of the monarch were thereby devoted to destruction. The raging mob no sooner noticed that they had ceased to fire, when they stormed the palace, murdered all within reach, and destroyed all the furniture. Five thousand persons, among them 700 Swiss, were a sacrifice to the rage of the mob. Meanwhile the National Assembly determined to suspend the royal authority, to place the King and his family under guard, to give the prince a tutor, and to summon a national convention. The royal family were sent to the "temple" as prisoners. Insulted by their keepers, deprived of every comfort, and cut off from all society, they wore out here in wretchedness, the weary days, until released by death.

§ 482. *The Days of September.* The Legislative Assembly now created a ministry of their own, of which Roland and the dreadful Danton were both members. Danton was minister of Justice, and in conjunction with the municipality of Paris he now possessed all power. The municipal council governed the city with the men of pikes, and all the prisons were soon full of "suspects" and "aristocrats." When the news of the approach of the allies reached the city, it was determined to get rid of all the enemies of the new order by a general massacre. First of all, they slaughtered the non-juring priests by hundreds in the cloisters and in the prisons, and then ensued the horrible days of September. From the second to the seventh of September, bands of hired assassins marched from prison to prison. Twelve of them acted as judge and jury, the others as executioners. Under this mockery of justice, the prisoners were murdered, with the exception of a few whose names were marked on their lists. About three thousand were slaughtered, either singly or in masses, by these butchers; and for their work, they received daily wages from the city council. Among the victims was the Princess Lamballe, the friend of the Queen. Her head was placed upon a pike, carried to the temple, and held up to the window of Marie Antoinette's cell. The example of the capital was followed in many other cities; a wild destruction of statues, inscriptions, coats of arms, and other monuments of the ancient time concluded the "days of September," the transition days from royal France to the new re-

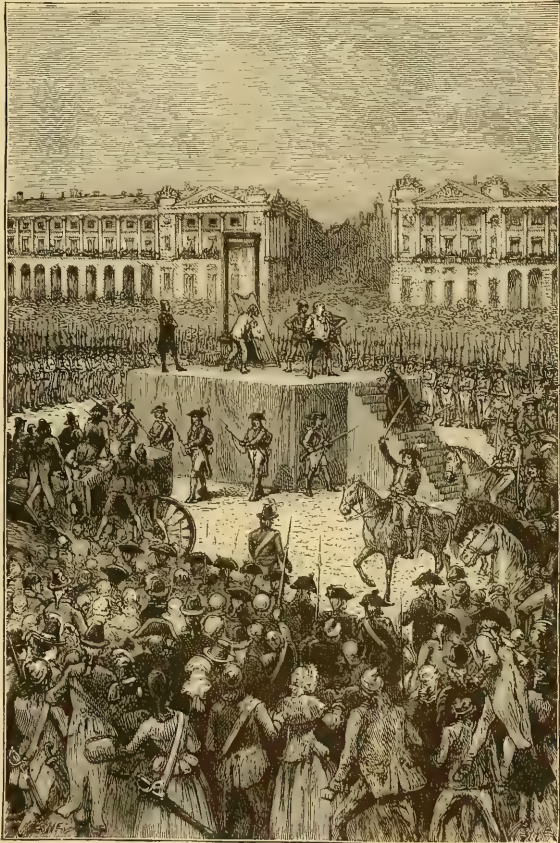
Sept. 21, 1792. public. The autumnal equinox was declared, by the Convention, to be the beginning of the reign of "freedom and equality," and all Frenchmen were now ordered to address each other as "citizens." Lafayette, who was with the army of the North, and who had ventured to Paris in order to save the King, was now called upon to make defence. Satisfied that the Jacobins were thirsting for his life, he fled to Holland, intending to go to America. But he fell into the hands of his enemies, who held him a captive for five years, in the dungeons of Magdeburg and Olmuetz. Talleyrand went to England, and thence to America, where he waited for better times.

#### 4. REPUBLICAN FRANCE UNDER THE NATIONAL CONVENTION (September, 1792 to October, 1795.)

§ 483. *The Execution of the King.* The Convention was chosen under the influence of the Jacobins, and by universal suffrage. It consisted of republicans of many



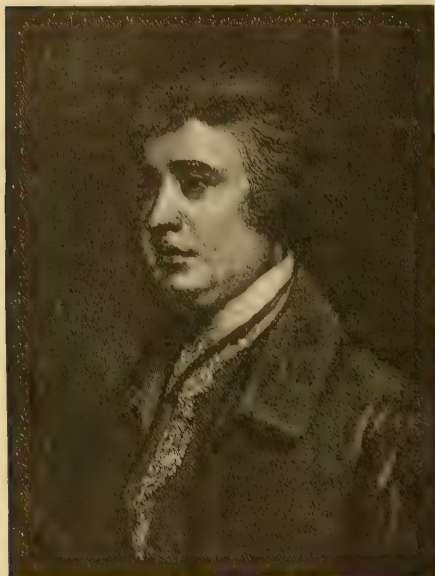
varieties. The moderates, whose name of Girondists was becoming, with every day, more hateful, strove for a republic, in the sense of antiquity or of the United States of North America. But they were soon overpowered by the radicals and democrats, who desired the overthrow of all existing institutions, in order to establish their new state of freedom and equality. Their watchword was, "He that is not for us is against us," and they sought to put an end to all resistance by terror and by blood. Their strength was in the Jacobins and in the Sans Culottes, the wild bands of revolutionists, who were kept in continual excitement by songs, festivals, the planting of liberty trees, and the like. The trial of King "Louis Capet" was one of the first acts of the National Convention. An iron chest had been discovered in the Tuileries, full of letters and documents from which, it was clear, that the French court had been in communication with Austria and the emigrants, and had also been bribing certain members of the National Assembly, for example, Mirabeau. The King was therefore charged with betraying and conspiring against the land and the people. De-

EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI. (*Vierge.*)

defended by the noble Malesherbes, Louis appeared twice before the convention (11th and 20th of December), but in spite of his manly bearing and of his able defense, and in spite of the efforts of the Girondists, he was condemned to death by a small majority. The party of the Mountain, the party of Robespierre, of St. Just, of Danton, of the lame

*Jan. 17, 1793.* Conthon, together with the Duke of Orleans, surnamed "Equality," employed every means to bring about this end. But they would not have succeeded, if they had not first changed the law that required a majority of two-thirds for a condemnation to death. It was murder clothed in a judicial form. On the 21st of January, the unfortunate King ascended the scaffold in the Place de la Revolution. The drum-beats of the National Guard drowned his last words, and "Robespierre's women" greeted his bloody head with the cry "Vive la republique!" Two crimes were committed simultaneously: in France the murder of a king, in Poland the murder of a nation.

§ 484. *Dumouriez.* Meanwhile, the Prussians had marched through Lorraine



EDMUND BURKE.

into Champagne, but the Duke of Brunswick lost time, reducing unimportant fortresses: and as a result, entered the country when the roads were impassable from rain, and when the eating of unripe fruit weakened and destroyed his army. Dumouriez

*Sept. 20, 1792.* occupied the forest, and Kellermann attacked the enemy at Valmy with such success, that the Prussian army determined to advance no further. Six days were lost in negotiations with Dumouriez, and then the German troops retreated to Verdun, without being pursued, and finally abandoned French territory. The Austrians had started from the Netherlands, but had just as little success. After the battle of

*Nov. 1, 1792.* Jemappes, Dumouriez conquered Belgium and Luetlich, whose inhabitants greeted the French as emancipators from the rule of Austria and the Bishop. He then threatened the Dutch frontiers.

Meanwhile, General Custine captured the cities along the Rhine, in which French

*Oct. 21, 1792.* ideas had found many adherents. The citizens of Mayence, abandoned by the Elector, by the Bishop, and by the nobility, received the French troops with enthusiasm. These successes gave the republicans fresh courage, and the European powers great alarm. New armies were raised in all Europe to invade France, and to put down the revolution which was threatening the safety of all existing states. England, where the Tories were in power, under the lead of the younger Pitt, where the eloquent Edmund Burke was attacking the revolution with great violence,—England took the lead of the "coalition" against France. An Austrian army appeared in the Netherlands, drove the French across the Meuse, and defeated Dumouriez

*March 18, 1793.* at Neer-Winden. The French commander, angry at the Jacobins,



CHARLOTTE GORDAY ASSASSINATES MARAT. (*F. Lix.*) (pp. 569.)



because they had so poorly provisioned his army, and had so hampered him with incompetent generals, threatened to overthrow the republic, and to establish a monarchy. The convention thereupon ordered him to Paris. Instead of obeying, Dumouriez arrested the messengers of the Convention, delivered them over to the enemy, and, with a part of his troops, went over himself to the Austrians. About *July, 1793.* the same time Mayence fell into the hands of the Prussians, who were once more approaching the French frontier.

§ 485. The treason of Dumouriez was used by the Jacobins to overthrow the



ROBESPIERRE.

Gironde. The Girondists, tired of mob rule, were bent upon converting France into a federal republic like the United States of America. In that way only they expected to break the power of Paris. The Mountain and the Jacobins saw, in the scheme their own destruction, and entered upon a fight for life and death. They accused the Girondists of connivance with Dumouriez; charged them with attempting to weaken the power of the people, and to destroy the republic, at the very moment when France was threatened by invading armies. But the eloquence of the Girondists put

to shame all these attacks, and Marat finally urged the radical mob to an uprising against the moderates, and the luke warm traitors. This led to daily insurrections and tumults, which threatened life and property. All honest and moderate people were in continual peril. The Girondists brought Marat into Court, but he was acquitted by the Jacobin juries, and carried by the mob in triumph into the Convention.

**April 24, 1793.** The Girondists then procured the appointment of a Commission of Twelve, who should discover and punish the promoters of tumult. When this commission arrested the journalist Hébert, the editor of *Pere Duchesne*, and his confederates, the furious mob compelled his release, and began the great riot of the 31st.

**May 31.** of May. The rioters made Henriot, a former lackey and police spy, the leader of the National Guard. They then surrounded the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session, and demanded the abolition of the Commission of Twelve and the expulsion of the Girondists. The Girondists displayed in vain all their powers; the people pressed into the hall, and into the galleries, and shouted for their victims. The majority of the assembly, together with their courageous president, ordered the mob to leave the hall, but in vain. The convention was obliged to yield to the commands of the mob and the Mountain. Thirty-four Girondists were arrested, twenty of them however escaped, and called upon the inhabitants of Brittany, Normandy, and the Maritime cities of the South, to rise up against the Jacobins.

**Oct. 31.** But the other fourteen died

**July 13.** upon the guillotine. The murder of Marat, by the noble enthusiast Charlotte Corday, and a terrible civil war, were the immediate consequences of these violent measures. Roland, Pétion, Barbaroux, Condorcet, all died a violent death. Madame Roland also perished on the scaffold, exclaiming, "Oh, liberty, what crimes have been committed in thy name!"

Thirteen members of the convention, who had voted with the Gironde, were also expelled, so that the democrats of the Mountain now ruled the assembly.

§ 486. *The Reign of Terror.* The convention was now able to unfold a fearful power and activity. It divided itself into various committees, among which the committee of the public welfare and the committee of safety have acquired a terrible renown, by their deeds of blood. A revolutionary tribunal, consisting of twelve jurors and five judges, upheld the activity of these committees by their cruel and speedy trials. Fouquier Tinville was the public prosecutor in this terrible court. At the head of the Committee of Public Safety were Robespierre, Couthon, and St. Just. Without regard to human life, they pursued their desperate aim. Whatever ventured to oppose them was stricken down without mercy. This reign of terror made itself felt in three directions: in the cruel persecution of all citizens who were known as



MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNE. (1793-1794.)

"Aristocrats" or Royalists; in the bloody suppression of the uprisings in the south and in the west; and in the powerful war of defence against all foreign enemies.

§ 487. *The Persecution of the Royalists.* The municipality of Paris was in the hands of extreme Jacobins and Democrats. All the wards of the city were under the supervision of democratic policemen. A revolutionary army of Sans Culottes stood ready to support the Men of Terror, so that all power was in the hands of the mob and their furious leaders. As in Paris, so also in the provinces, the Jacobins predominated. Their orators and presidents committed the bloodiest crimes against all

who would not work with them. A law against suspects declared every body to

*Sept. 17. 1793.* be "an enemy of his country" who showed any sympathy for the monarchy, or for the priesthood, or for the nobility, and threatened him with death. The prisons were filled with thousands of so-called aristocrats, and every day, thirty or forty persons were dragged to the scaffold. The base slander of a personal enemy, the accusation of a spy, the hatred of a vagabond, sufficed to bring the innocent to prison and to death. But death lost its terrors, and the prisons became meeting places of cheerful companions and powerful intellects. For among the sacrificed, were the noblest and most distinguished men of France. The noble-minded Malesherbes, members of the National Assembly, like Bailly



MARIE ANTOINETTE LED TO EXECUTION. (*De la Roche.*)

*Oct. 16. 1793.* and Barnave, scholars and writers like Lavoisier and André Chenier, died under the axe; among them, the sorely tried Queen Marie  
*Louis XVII.*  
*born 1785.* Antoinette, who, before her judges and on the scaffold, showed a fortitude and a nobility of soul worthy of her birth. Her son died  
*died*  
*June 8. 1795.* under the severe discipline of a Jacobin, and her daughter, the Duchess d' Angoulême, carried through life a gloomy spirit and an embittered heart. Even  
*Nov. 6. 1793.* the pious sister of Louis XVI., the gentle Elizabeth, died upon the scaffold. Nor did the Duke of Orleans escape, for Danton's favor could not protect him from Robespierre's cruel envy.



## 6. THE HORRORS IN THE SOUTH.

§ 488. When the inhabitants of Normandy and Brittany rose in defence of the expelled Girondists, the Committee of Public Safety devastated the region between the Seine and the Loire with instruments of terror. Carrier, their agent, crowded together his victims by the hundred, upon ships with trap-bottoms, by means of which they were drowned in crowds. In Lyons, a former priest stirred up the artisans to rob and murder the aristocrats. The rich citizens of Lyons thereupon

July 16. 1793. procured the execution of the demagogue. This enraged the Men of Terror at Paris. An army was sent to Lyons; the city was taken; the citizens were shot by scores, because the guillotine worked too slowly; houses were torn down, and whole blocks blown up with powder. The possessions of the rich were distributed to the mob, and Lyons was to be destroyed from the face of the earth. A similar fate befell Marseilles and Toulon. The Royalists of Toulon called the English to their help, and made over to them their city and harbor; but the army of the revolution, in which the young Corsican, Napoleon Bonaparte, gave the first proofs of his military genius, overcame all obstacles. Toulon was taken by storm. The English, unable to defend the city, set fire to their fleet, and abandoned the wretched inhabitants. The wealthy citizens were shot down, and their property distributed to the Sans-Culottes. Bordeaux and Northern France were scenes of similar terror.

§ 489. *The Bloody Scenes in Vendée.* But La Vendée, a peculiar district of West France, traversed by hedges and intersected by ditches, was the greatest sufferer of all. The people in this district preserved the simplicity of the ancient time. Peasants and tenants were attached to their landlords; they loved the king, revered the priest and the church, which had been dear and sacred to them from their youth. When, therefore, the National Assembly banished or murdered their priests, when the King perished by the guillotine, when their sons were drafted into the army, the people rose in their wrath to resist the Reign of Terror. Their leaders were from all classes, from the peasants and the nobility; and at first they drove back the armies of the Republic. The Convention then sent a revolutionary army under Westermann, and the furious Jacobins, Ronsin and Rossignol, to suppress the rebellion. These fell like wild beasts upon the inhabitants; set fire to their cities, villages, barns, and forests, and sought to break the resistance of the Royalists by cruelty and terror. But the courage of the Vendéans was unbroken. Not until General Kleber marched his army against them, did the unfortunate people yield, and then their land had become a desert, and thousands had fertilized the soil with their blood. The brave but humane Hoche followed, and offered the weary people peace. His moderation brought them to submission.

§ 490. *Danton's Overthrow.* The cruelty of the Jacobins was at last too terrible for Danton and Camille Desmoulins. Danton was weary of murder, and retired with his young wife, for a short time, into the country, to enjoy the wealth which the Revolution had brought him. Desmoulins attacked the three heads of the Committee of Safety in his journal. This enraged the Jacobins, and as several friends and adherents of Danton had been guilty of deception and bribery, in connection with the East India Company, and some others had caused offence by their attacks upon religion, the Committee of Public Safety determined to destroy Danton and all his party. The convention had altered the calendar and the names of the months, had abolished Sundays

and holidays, and substituted for them decades and popular festivals. This led several Dantonists, like Hébert, Momoro, Chaumette, and Cloots, to attack Christianity and the priesthood with scandalous fury. They desecrated and plundered the churches, they made a mock of sacred garments and sacred vessels, they paraded in blaspheming crowds through the streets, and finally they determined, in the Convention, to establish the worship of reason in the place of the Catholic service. At a festival in Notre Dame, where the Goddess of Reason was represented by the beautiful Madame Momoro,

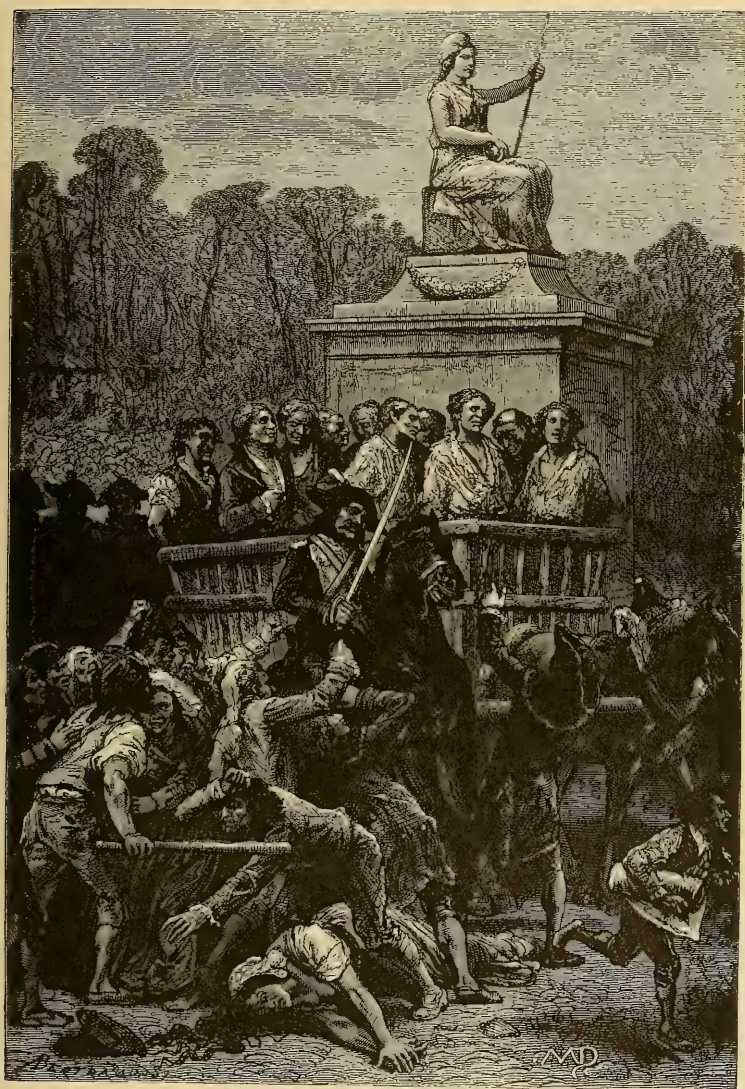


THE FETE OF REASON. (*M. Müller.*)

they began their new religion. Robespierre opposed all this; he was neither greedy, nor licentious, nor blasphemous. And he determined to destroy both Desmoulins and

**Feb. 1794.** Danton. When the former appeared in the Convention, St. Just offered a remarkable resolution, in which he divided the enemies of the Republic into three classes, the corrupt, the ultra-revolutionists, and the moderates. The resolution

**March 24.** was adopted on the 24th of March. Nineteen ultra-revolutionists, among them, Cloots, Hébert and Momoro, the husband of the Goddess of Reason, were



THE DANTONISTS ON THE ROAD TO THE GUILLOTINE. (*D. Maillard.*) (*pp. 575.*)



*March 31.* led to the guillotine. On the 31st of March, the corruptionists were accused before the revolutionary tribunal, and Danton and Desmoulins were dragged into the trial. They demanded to be confronted with their accusers. For three days, Danton's voice of thunder and the tumult of the people made his condemnation impossible. For the first time in its history, the Tribunal hesitated; whereupon the Convention gave to the Court authority to condemn the accused, without a further hearing. They were led to the guillotine and beheaded, along with a crowd of rabble. They died courageously, and with noble dignity.

## 7. THE MILITARY ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE REPUBLICANS.

§ 491. *The First Coalition.* Meanwhile the armies of all Europe were marching to the French frontiers. The Dutch, the Austrians, and the English were in the Netherlands. Prussian and Austrian troops had crossed the Rhine. Sardinia was threatening the southeast, and Spanish and Portuguese armies were stationed at the Pyrenees. The English were striving to destroy the naval power of France, to conquer her colonies, and to maintain the armies of the continent by enormous subsidies. At first the allies were successful. Alsace and Flanders fell into their hands, and the way to Paris was open. But discord and incompetency hindered their success. The republicans, on the other hand, suspecting treason in every defeat, sought to compel victory by terror. General Beauharnais, who came too late to save Mayence, was guillotined. So too were Custine and his son. And Hoche was imprisoned, be-

*Nov. 28-30, 1793.* cause he was defeated by the Prussians and other German troops at Kaiserslautern. The energetic and able Carnot now became a member of the Committee of Safety, and brought unity and combination into the war. A draft was ordered, which compelled everybody to take his part. Freedom still created among the soldiers courage and enthusiasm; but they were no longer led against the enemy in small divisions, and from their ranks proceeded the greatest generals of modern time. The soldiers of other countries, who fought for pay and not for freedom, were no match for these young warriors; and besides that, the undertakings of the allies were frequently hindered by political considerations, and by

*June 26, 1794.* diplomatic arts. In June, Jourdan compelled the allies to retire from Belgium, and at the beginning of autumn the Netherlands and the Dutch frontiers

*1794-'95.* were in the hands of the French. In December and January General Pichegru led his half-starved, half-clad army across the ice into Holland, compelled the Stadtholder to fly to England, and founded the Batavian republic. Holland was now allied with France. The French troops were clad and maintained at the expense of the Dutch, and great sums of money were sent to Paris, as compensation for the war. Meanwhile the English took possession of the Dutch ships and colonies, so that the unfortunate country was plundered on both sides.

§ 492. *The Peace of Basel.* The French were just as victorious along the Rhine. In October the Austrians and Prussians abandoned the left bank to the enemy; and the Prussian government, busy with the affairs of Poland,

*April 5, 1795.* agreed to the peace of Basel. In this shameful peace the left bank of the Rhine and Holland were given up to the French, the Rhine was established as the natural boundary of France, and North Germany was separated from the South. The war continued in South Germany, but North Germany was declared to be neutral soil.



The Austrians, however, continued the war. Pichegru was defeated, Heidelberg was  
 1795. taken from the French, and Mannheim was partly destroyed, and then  
 occupied by the Germans. Clerfait, the Austrian commander, now resigned, and was  
 succeeded by the Arch-duke Karl, the Emperor's brother, who soon displayed great  
 Sept. 3, 1796. military genius. He defeated Jourdan at Wurzburg, and compelled  
 him to retreat across the Rhine. Even Moreau was forced out of Bavaria and Swabia,  
 Sept. 19 to Oct. 24, 1796. but by a masterly retreat through the Black forest, he reached the  
 Rhine without great loss. The other German princes imitated, for the  
 most part, the example of Prussia, and made peace with France.

§ 493. *Robespierre's Downfall.* After Danton's death, the Committee of Safety  
 ruled absolutely, and brought the Reign of Terror to a climax, by their arrests and  
 executions. But the Convention and the people no longer trusted them. The  
 friends of Danton were lurking and watching for an opportunity. When Robespierre  
 1794. made an end of the blasphemous worship of reason, his enemies in-  
 creased. The Convention solemnly resolved that there was a Supreme Being, and that  
 the soul was immortal; and at a festival, in honor of this Supreme Being, Robespierre  
 officiated as high-priest. To his enemies belonged Tallien, Fréron, Fouché, and that  
 July 27, 1794. master of lies, Barère. On the 9th of Thermidor, a struggle for life  
 and death began in the Convention. Robespierre and his friends were not allowed to  
 speak. Their adversaries howled them down, and passed a resolution to arrest  
 and imprison the three chiefs of the Committee of Safety, Robespierre, St.  
 Just, and Couthon, together with their companion Henriot. On their way to the  
 prison, they were set free by the mob. The drunken Henriot thereupon threatened  
 the Convention with the National Guard, while the others hastened to the city hall,  
 but the National Assembly was too prompt for them.

A proclamation, cried through the streets, scattered Henriot's army, while the  
 citizens, tired of the Jacobins, rushed to the support of the Convention. The accused  
 were re-arrested. Henriot crept into a sewer, out of which he was pulled with hooks.  
 Robespierre tried to kill himself, but succeeded only in shattering his jaw. They were  
 July 28. led, amid the curses and cries of the people, first to the revolutionary  
 Tribunal, and then to the guillotine. Ninety-three Jacobins shared the fate of their  
 leader.

#### THE LAST DAYS OF THE CONVENTION.

§ 494. The Thermidorians were doubtless animated by personal revenge; never-  
 theless, the death of Robespierre meant a return to order and moderation. The popu-  
 lar assemblies were gradually restrained, the power of the city council diminished, and  
 arms taken from the mob. Fréron assembled about him the young men, who, from  
 their raiment, were known as the "Gilded Youth." These attacked the Jacobins on  
 the street, and in their club. The club was at last closed, and the Jacobin cloister  
 torn down.

The Convention was strengthened by the recall of the excluded members and of  
 the Girondists, and then caused the worst men of the Reign of Terror to be put to  
 death. But when the most active members of the Committee of Safety, Barère, Va-  
 dier, d'Herbois, and others were accused, the Jacobins gathered themselves together,  
 and drove the excited people, who were desperate from famine and poverty, to a ter-





THE BREAD RIOTERS IN THE HALL OF THE CONVENTION. (*F. Lix.*) (pp. 579.)

11-12

*Germinal,**March 31.**April 1, 1795.**May 20, 1795.*

rible insurrection. Mobs surrounded the hall of the convention, crying for bread, for the release of the patriots, and for the Constitution of 1793. But Pichegru was fortunately present in Paris, and came to the help of the convention with citizens and soldiers. The mob was dispersed, and the still more dangerous insurrection of the 20th of May

was also suppressed by the courageous president Boissy d'Anglas. The mob surrounded the convention from day-break till after midnight, demanding the restoration of the Committee of Safety. But the power of the Jacobins was broken. Some died by their own hand, some were deported, and others were beheaded. Meanwhile, the party of the Royalists was increasing, and a new constitution was adopted, in which the executive authority was given to a directory of five persons, and the legislative power committed to a council of ancients and a council of five hundred. The Repub-



DEPUTY OF THE COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED  
AND MEMBER OF THE DIRECTORY IN GALA  
COSTUME. (1794-1799.)

passionately, although she was several years older than he.

lican members of the convention, fearing that the Royalists would succeed at the next election, added a supplement to this constitution, requiring that two-thirds of both legislative councils should consist of members of the Convention. The Royalists rebelled against this limitation of the franchise, and provoked an uprising of the sections. The Convention thereupon called upon Napoleon Bonaparte to put down the insurrection, which he did, on the

*Oct. 5, 1795.* 5th of October, 1795, (18th

Vendemiaire). This gave to the Republicans of the Convention the upper hand, and to the young Napoleon the command of the Italian army. A few days after his appointment, he

*March 8, 1796.*

married the widow of Gen. Beauharnais, who had been put to death by the Terrorists. Josephine was the beautiful and graceful daughter of a French officer, Tascher de la Pagerie. Napoleon had been made acquainted with her by Barras; he loved her

## 8. FRANCE UNDER THE DIRECTORY (Oct. 26th, 1795—Nov. 9th, 1799.)

§ 495 *Bonaparte in Italy.* The French army on the Italian frontier was in a wretched condition. Suddenly Napoleon appeared, as their commander-in-chief, and in a short time he had made them so enthusiastic, and attached them so firmly to himself, that they followed him into every danger. Where the love of glory was not

*1796.*

powerful enough, the treasures of Italy stimulated their courage. In April, Napoleon defeated the Austrians at Monte Notte, separated them from the Sardinians, frightened the king, Victor Amadeus, into surrendering Savoy and Nice to

*May.*

France, and into permitting the French armies to march through his territory. The kingdom was thus made entirely dependent upon France, and Charles Emanuel IV. surrendered Piedmont also, and retired with his family to the island of





(pp. 581.) BONAPARTE ON THE BRIDGE AT ARCOLE. (Emil Bayard.)



Sardinia. Napoleon's victorious course soon placed him in possession of all Upper Italy; he crossed the bridge of Lodi, marched into Austrian Milan, subjugated the cities of Lombardy, and so terrified the small princes, that they begged for peace, on any terms. Napoleon forced the Dukes of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, to give him great sums of money, costly pictures, manuscripts, and works of art. These he sent to Paris, and the money was used to subsidize the directory. The octo-

*Aug. 5, 1796.* genarian commander of the Austrians, Beaulieu, was now superseded by Wurmser; but Napoleon defeated him at Castiglione, and then beleaguered him in Mantua. The army sent to his relief was defeated in three successive battles, and the

*Nov. 1796.* Austrian army in Italy completely wiped out. This compelled

*Jan. 1797.* Wurmser to capitulate. Bonaparte permitted the venerable com-

mander to retain his sword, and to march out with a part of his heroic garrison. Pope Pius VI., was so terrified by these successes of the French, that he purchased the

*Feb. 10, 1797.* peace of Tolentino by cessions of territory, large sums of money, and valuable works of art. The Archduke Karl was then made commander of the Austrian armies in Italy, but he was soon compelled to an inglorious retreat, and pursued by Bonaparte in the direction of Vienna. The frightened Emperor Francis was now persuaded, by the still more



JOSEPHINE. (E. Ronjat.)

*April 18, 1797.* frightened women of his court, to sign the truce of Leoben, just at the moment when the French army was in great danger from the Tyroleans. At the same time, an uprising of the people in Venice led to the murder of many Frenchmen in Verona and its vicinity.

Napoleon revenged his comrades by destroying the Venetian republic. The cowardice of the aristocratic counsellors greatly helped him in his work. The French marched into Venice in the month of May, carried off the ships and the supplies of the Republic, robbed the churches, galleries, and libraries of their most precious treasures, and occupied the city until the peace of Campo Formio was signed.

*Oct. 17, 1797.* By this peace, Austria agreed that Upper Italy should be formed into the Cisalpine Republic. Under the protectorate of France, Belgium was ceded to the French Republic; the left bank of the Rhine and Mayence were also surrendered;

but in return for these, Austria acquired Venice and Dalmatia. The princes, prelates, and noblemen, who lost by this surrender of the left bank of the Rhine, were compensated by territories on the right bank. These, and all other points relating to Germany, were arranged at the Congress of Rastatt, where Napoleon presided in person, and whence he departed to Paris to receive the applause of excited thousands.

§ 496. *Gracchus Babeuf. The Royalists.* The government of the five directors was hateful alike to the Republicans and the Royalists. The first attempt to overthrow it was made by the Republicans, under the lead of Gracchus Babeuf, who aimed at a new distribution of property, and sought to establish equality of wealth. He was joined by many of the old Jacobins, and they founded the "Union of Equals" which held its sittings secretly, at the

May, 1796. Pantheon. The conspiracy was discovered. Babeuf drove a dagger to his heart; the others were executed or exiled. The Royalists, on the other hand, succeeded in the elections in bringing into the legislative assembly a majority of their friends, among them Pichegru, the former commander of the Rhine army. He was chosen president of the council of five hundred, and sought to restore the monarchy. The Republicans, in the directory and in the legislative chambers, sought, in their anxiety, help from Napoleon Bonaparte. Bonaparte sent Bernadotte, the cunning, and Augereau, the brutal, into Paris; ostensibly to bring the conquered standards, but really to support the directors against the Royalists. On

Sept. 4, 1797. the 18th Fructidor, Augereau surrounded the Tuileries and arrested the Royalist deputies. Eleven members of the ancients, forty-two of the five hundred (among them Pichegru), and two directors, were thereupon condemned to exile. The Royalist elections were declared invalid, the returned emigrants were banished, and many newspapers suppressed. Nevertheless, the government of the directory failed to inspire confidence. Commerce, industry, agriculture, were at a standstill, and the



HUSSAR, CAVALRYMAN AND INFANTRYMAN. (1795.)



GENERAL OF LIGHT INFANTRY OFFICER, AND INFANTRYMAN. (1795.)

state treasury was empty. The paper money of the Revolution, which, during the Reign of Terror, no one ventured to refuse, had now lost all value. Great losses were the consequence. The expenses of war and other outlays, could only be met by forced contributions in the conquered lands.

§ 497. *The Republicans in Italy; the Transformation of Switzerland.* Italy and Switzerland were now made to feel the insolence and the capacity of the Directory. In the winter of 1797 the French provoked republican uprisings in Rome and other parts of the Papal dominions. In suppressing these movements of the mob, a French

**Feb., 1798.** general was killed by the papal troops; thereupon Berthier marched his army into Rome. A liberty tree was planted in the Roman Forum, and the temporal power was taken away from the Pope, and handed over to a republican government, consisting of consuls, senators, and tribunes. Heavy contributions were then levied upon the city, valuable works of art were carried off to Paris, the aged pope Pius VI. was led a prisoner to France, where

**Aug., 1799.** he died the next year, and the cardinals were severely persecuted. Genoa and Lucca also received democratic constitutions, for which they paid with their treasures of art. But Naples went through a series of changes. The hard hearted

**Ferdinand IV.,** and cowardly king, Ferdinand, who (**I of Naples,** turned over the affairs of state to **1759-1825.** his wife, Catharine, was induced, by the Queen and her friend Lady Hamilton, to send a Neapolitan army, under the Austrian general, Mack, into the papal states. The French were driven out of Rome, and the city occupied by Mack's army.

**Nov. and Dec., 1798.** But in a few days, the French returned, drove out the Neapolitans, and marched to Naples. The Neapolitan court fled to Sicily, after setting fire to their own fleet, and abandoned Naples and the whole country to the victors. The Neapolitan people now rose in insurrection,



COSTUME OF CITIZENS. (1796.)

urged on by monks and priests. Mobs of rabble, uniting with peasants and galley slaves, took possession of Naples, and committed such horrors that the royal governor fled to Sicily, and even Mack sought protection from the French. The French, under Championnet, now forced their way into the desperately defended

**Jan., 1799.** city, and erected the Parthenopian republic. All the cultivated, respectable, and patriotic Neapolitans accepted the new order with enthusiasm, rejoicing at their redemption from the long oppression of royal and priestly despotism. Switzerland also experienced a compulsory change of constitution. In 1798 the Republicans of Waadtland rose in arms to free themselves from the authority of Berne, and as they were unable to cope with the Bernese, they called upon the French for help. General Brune occupied Berne with a French army, took possession of the city treasury and the arsenal, and levied heavy contributions upon the people. With the help of the Democratic party, the French then converted

**March, 1798.** Switzerland into an indivisible Helvetian republic. The forests can-



tons, urged on by their priests, refused to accept the new government, and took up arms. But their desperate and courageous resistance was soon conquered. Geneva also was united to France. About the same time, an insurrection occurred in Ireland. A French army under Humbert was sent to support the insurgents, but was forced by **August, 1798.** the English to a speedy capitulation, and Ireland was then placed under martial law.

§ 498. *The Second War of the Coalition (1793-1799.)* These events, and Napoleon's expedition to Egypt, led to a new coalition of Russia, England, and Austria, against France. Russia, in 1796, came under the rule of Catharine's eldest son Paul, an eccentric prince, who hated the Revolution, who was a warm admirer of the Knights of Malta, of which he was grand-master, and who found a cause of war in Napoleon's taking the island of Malta. England dreaded the consequences of the Egyptian expedition for her Eastern possessions, and scattered money with liberal hands. Austria was in difficulty with the Directory, because the dwelling of the French ambassador in Vienna had been attacked, and the tri-color had been insulted. This war was carried on in Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and the Netherlands all at



PIUS VII. (*E. Ronjat.*)

**March 25, 1799.** once. The French were driven across the Rhine by the Arch-duke Karl, and the French ambassadors at Rastatt, as they were leaving the city, were

**April 28.** attacked, robbed of their papers, and two of them killed. In Italy also the French suffered defeat. The Russians conquered the Cisalpine Republic; Moreau

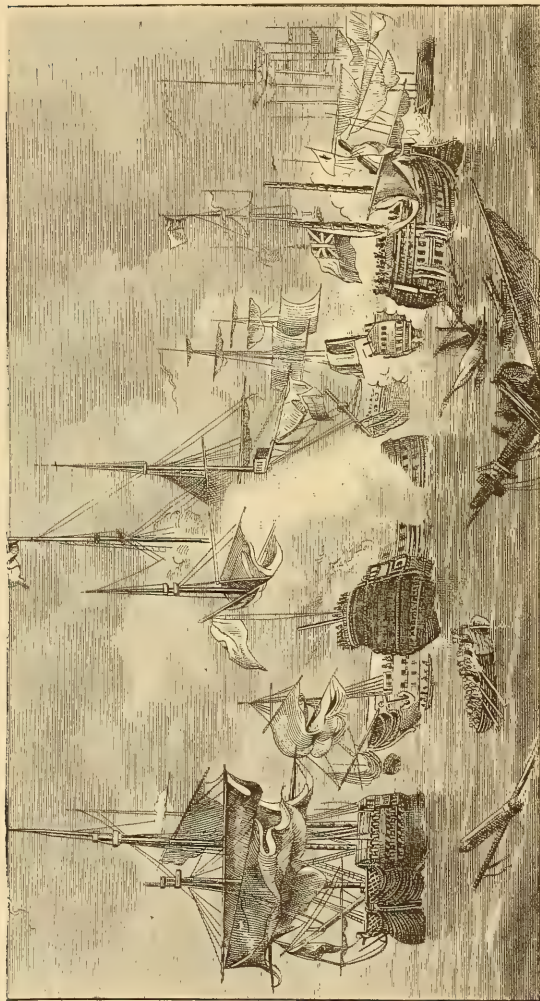
**April 27, 1799.** was defeated at Cassano, and MacDonald at Trebia, and Italy was

**June 12-19,** lost to the French at the battle of Novi. This brought the Parthenopian

**August 15.** Republic to an end. As the French abandoned Naples, Cardinal Ruffo,

**June 13.** with a mob of peasants and vagabonds, stormed the city. The court returned from Sicily, and began at once a terrible punishment of the Republicans in Naples. Supported by Lord Nelson, whose fleet lay in the harbor, the royal government and the priesthood committed outrages worthy of the worst days of the Reign of Terror. When the rabble was worn out with robbery and assassination, the judge, the jailor, and the hangman, set to work. All who supported or furthered the republican institutions, were hunted down. Four thousand of the most cultivated and respected men

and women of the city died upon the scaffold, or in gloomy dungeons. The aged Prince Caraccioli, Ferdinand's former confidant, and Nelson's friend, was tied to a



BATTLE OF THE NILE.

mast, and then, loaded down with a heavy weight, thrown into the sea. The republican government in Rome was likewise destroyed, and the new pope, Pius VII., entered the Vatican. After the conquest of Italy, the Russian commander Suwaroff recrossed the Alps, to drive Massena and the French army out of Switzerland. The Russian army climbed mountain passes which had been hitherto regarded as inaccessible to man, fought against nature and against their enemies with a bravery never surpassed, and yet the French maintained themselves in Switzerland. Before Suwaroff could unite with his allies, the Russians were defeated in the battle of Zurich. Suwaroff

**Sept. 26, 27, 1799.** led the remnant of his army back to Russia, where he died in sor-

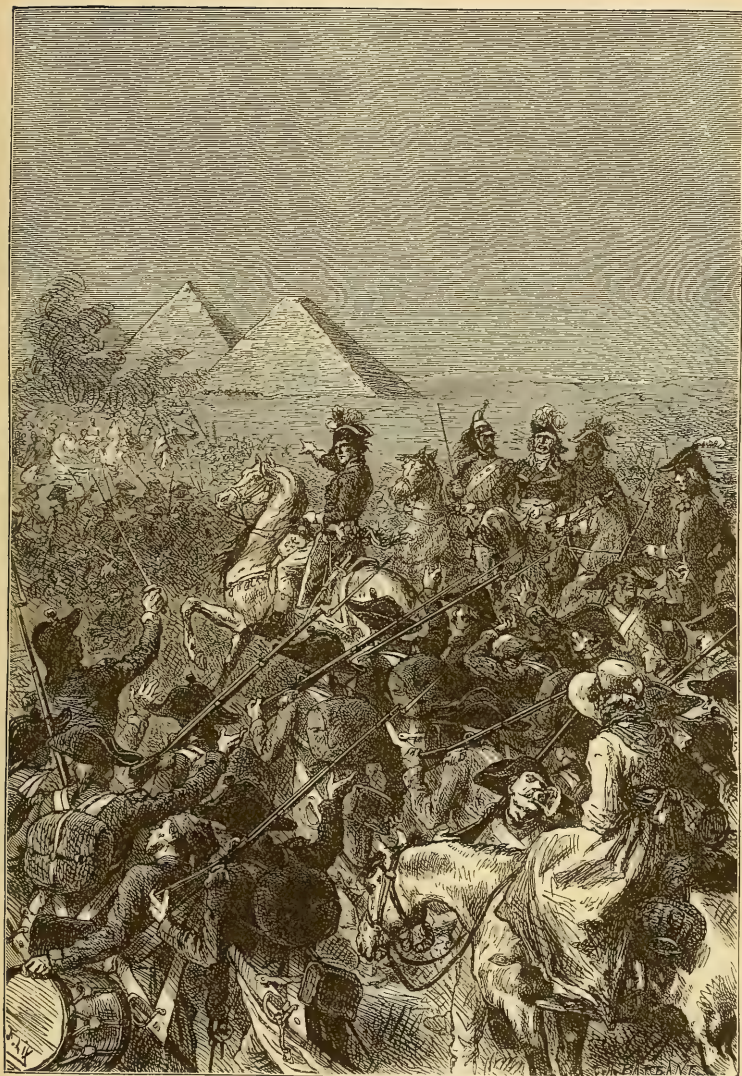
**May, 1800.** row, because of the disfavor of his monarch. The attempt of the English to drive the

French out of the Netherlands, was a disastrous failure. The Duke of York, who

**Oct., 1799.**

commanded the expedition, was utterly incompetent, and bought his





BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS. (*F. Lix.*)

(*pp. 587.*)



way home by a shameful treaty, without considering his Russian allies. This so embittered the Russian czar, that he withdrew from the coalition.

§ 499. *Bonaparte in Egypt and Syria.* In June 1798, Napoleon sailed for the mouth of the Nile; his purpose was to weaken the naval power of the English, and to threaten their possessions in East India. In the hot days of July, he left Alexandria, and marched through the Egyptian desert to Cairo. The distress of the army, under the glowing sun, without water and without sufficient food, was terrible; yet in the

**July 21, 1798.** Battle of the Pyramids, the Mamelukes were conquered, and Napoleon entered Cairo. But during his absence, the French fleet had been led away by the English hero, Lord Nelson; and Napoleon was compelled to make preparations for a

**Aug. 1, 2, 1798.** longer stay. He therefore established a new government, a new system of police and taxation: and he ordered the scholars and artists who were with his



NAVAL FIGHT OFF ABUKIR, AUGUST 1, 1798. (Fr. Weber.)

army, to investigate the antiquities and monuments of this wonderful country, to collect and to describe the relics of their ancient life. Bonaparte and his soldiers were careful to spare the religious feelings of the Mohammedans, their priests, their mosques, and their ceremonies; nevertheless, the fanatical Mussulmans hated the dominion of the Christians. And when the French commander levied taxes and contributions upon them, and the Turkish government called upon the Mohammedans to

**Oct. 21, 1798.** war against the Christians, there arose in Cairo a terrible insurrection. This was not suppressed until six thousand Mohammedans were slain. Napoleon then

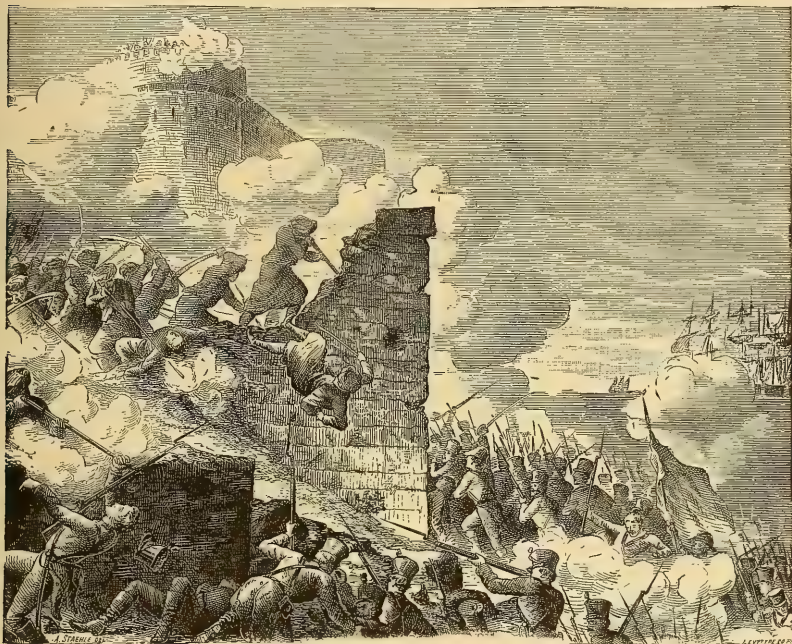
**Feb., 1799.** marched against the Turks in Syria, and conquered Joppa, where he massacred at one time two thousand prisoners. He then besieged St. John D'Acre.

**March-May, 1799.** Here Napoleon's fortune proved treacherous for the first time; the Turks drove back their desperate enemies, while a Turkish army outside the city threatened the besiegers. The latter was soon conquered and dispersed, nevertheless

Bonaparte was compelled, by pestilence, to give up the siege and to retreat. He

**July 25.** reached Cairo in June, and the next month defeated the Turkish army at Aboukir. A few days after the battle, he received newspapers recounting the misfortunes of the French in Italy, and news also of the political situation in France. He determined to return. Handing over the command of the Egyptian army to Kleber, he sailed from Alexandria and narrowly escaping capture by the English, soon

**Oct. 8, 1799.** reached the French coast, and journeyed, amid the acclamations of the people, hastily to Paris.



SEIGE OF ST. JOHN D'ACRE.

§ 500. *The Eighteenth Brumaire.* The Directory had lost all influence. Everybody was convinced that a change of constitution was necessary. The news of Napoleon's landing fixed all eyes upon him. His daring expedition had increased the admiration of the people for the new Cæsar, and the return of the hero, who was said to have been exiled by the envious directors, formed the substance of all conversations. Napoleon now determined to place himself at the head of the state. To this end he must overthrow the Directory. He assured himself of the support of the officers and troops stationed in Paris, and then arranged with Sieyès, one of the directors, and with his brother Lucian, the president of the council of five hundred, the plan of operations. This

was to remove the sittings of the council to St. Cloud, in order to bring the members within reach of the soldiers. Entering the hall, Napoleon sought at first to win the council over to his plans. But when he was met with reproaches and threats, he commanded his grenadiers to empty the hall at the point of the bayonet. The Republicans were compelled to yield, and sought safety through the doors and windows. The most defiant of them were carried out by the grenadiers. A commission of fifty persons was then charged with framing a new constitution. This was the COUP D' ETAT of the 18th. Brumaire, in consequence of which, Napoleon Bonaparte became First Consul, and in alliance with Sieyès, created a new constitution, which preserved the shadow of a republic, but was really a military despotism.



MADAME ROLAND.

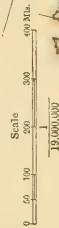




# EUROPE

during the  
Reign of Napoleon I.

by  
A. von Steinwehr.



KDM. KINGDOM,  
G. D. Grand Duchy.





## C. THE RULE OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

### I. THE CONSULATE (1800 TO 1804.)

§ 501



THE consular constitution distributed the functions of the state as follows: 1—A senate, consisting of eighty members, had authority to choose from the names sent from the various departments, the members of the legislative body, the chief executive officers, and the judges. 2—A legislative body consisting of a tribunate composed of a hundred members, whose duty it was to examine and to discuss the propositions of the executive, and of a law-making assembly which voted upon these propositions without discussion and adopted or rejected them without amendment. 3—The executive

consisting of three consuls chosen for ten years, of whom the first consul, Napoleon Bonaparte, exercised actually the executive authority, while the second and third consul (Cambaceres and Lebrun) assisted him as counselors. Bonaparte surrounded himself with a state council and a cabinet, for which he selected men of the highest talent and largest experience. Talleyrand, the skillful diplomatist, became minister of foreign affairs; the astute Fouché controlled the police system, and Berthier was chief of the general staff. The French law book, the code Napoleon, in the composition of which the ablest jurists of France were engaged, is a striking proof of the ability of the state council.

§ 502. MARENGO AND HOHENLINDEN.

The new constitution once established, Napoleon wrote an autograph letter to the king of England and another to the Emperor, offering peace. But this unusual step met a cold reception. The answers to it spoke of the restoration of the Bourbons, and of the return to old frontiers. The contrast between the apparent candor and magnanimity of Napoleon, and the haughty coldness of the cabinets of London and Vienna filled the French with the enthusiasm of war. The Russian Czar, however, treated Napoleon with more consideration. Paul's love of soldiers and his anger at the Austrians and English, who refused to exchange their Russian prisoners,



were cunningly made use of by Napoleon. He sent thousands of these prisoners, newly clad and armed, back to their native country. This won the heart of the chivalrous Czar so that he entered into friendly correspondence with Bonaparte, and broke off relations entirely with his former allies. The first consul now secretly collected a large body of troops near Lake Geneva, and began his daring march across the St. Bernard with the main army, while other divisions were sent by the Simplon, St. Gotthard and other



FRENCH GENERALS. (1799-1800.)

*May, 1800.* passes, into Italy. The army marched through mountains of snow and ice past the Hospice of St. Bernard, into the river valley of Dora Baltea. Here the way seemed to be blocked by the Austrian fort Bard. But Napoleon mastered every difficulty. The troops crossed the neighboring mountain by a narrow sheep-path, while the cannon were secretly and cunningly pushed forward under the batteries of the fort. The French arrived, unexpectedly, in upper Italy, at the same moment in which the Austrians compelled Genoa to surrender, and

*June 9, 1800:* thereby acquired possession of the whole land. But the situation soon changed. Five days after the fall of Genoa the Austrians were defeated at Monte-bello, and shortly afterwards in the battle of Marengo, where they were beaten in a third attack, after being twice victorious. The troops of General Desaix, who had just arrived from Egypt, and the opportune cavalry charge of the young Kellermann decided the battle, and snatched from the Austrian commander, Melas, his confidently expected victory. Desaix, one of the noblest and greatest men of the Revolutionary era, died a heroic death at Marengo. Milan and Lombardy fell into the victors' hands. At the same time another French army under Moreau had penetrated to Bavaria, driven back the Austrians in several engagements and compelled them to an armistice; but the glorious march of Macdonald and Moncey, over the ice-clad Alps, and

*Feb. 9, 1801.* Moreau's splendid victory on the bloody field of Hohenlinden compelled the Austrians to sign the treaty of Luneville, and to accept the valley between the Adige and the Rhine as the frontier of the French Empire. The treaty also provided for the formation of an Italian republic under the presidency of Bonaparte, and for the compensation of German princes, by secularizing the estates of the church and confiscating the property of imperial cities on the right bank of the Rhine. Two years later an arrangement of German frontiers was agreed to, which was the first

*Feb. 25, 1803.* step toward the dissolution of the German empire, and toward the creation of sovereign kingdoms and dominions.

### § 503. THE PEACE OF AMIENS.

England now stood alone. The Russian Czar Paul had shortly before, in order to gratify his hate, formed an alliance of armed neutrality with Prussia, Sweden,

and Denmark; and as this gave the English enemies in the Baltic also, they became anxious for rest and recuperation. Negotiations were begun but they led to no result because it was impossible to agree about Egypt. Kleber, angry as he was at Napo-

leon's departure, had nevertheless maintained himself successfully against the English and the Turks, and in the bat-

**March 20, 1800.** He of Heliopolis had defeated an enemy six times his strength. But on the day of the battle of Marengo, he had been assassinated at Cairo by a fanatical Mahommedan. The French army then passed to his incompetent successor Menou who had gone over to Islam. It was speedily reduced to such extremities, that the English hoped to compel its surrender and therefore pro-

tracted the peace negotiations. Not until the brave English general Abercrombie had fallen at Canopus, were they convinced that it was impossible to conquer the war-like

**March 21, 1801.** French, either by their own army made up of all people or by the worthless Turkish mobs. The French troops, twenty four thousand in number, were finally carried to France in English ships, with their arms, their munitions of war, and all their treasures of science and art. The PEACE OF AMIENS followed. The English

**March 27, 1802.** agreed to surrender the greater part of their foreign conquests and to turn over the Island of Malta to the knights of St. John. This treaty hastily agreed upon by the English ministry, excited violent opposition among the English people. The press, especially, attacked Napoleon with great violence. The First Consul, who could tolerate neither blame nor contradiction, replied with like vehemence in the French official journal (*Moniteur*). The feeling thus produced led to a renewal of the war, when the English delayed the surrender of Malta, and the execution of other articles of the treaty. They no longer feared Russia, for the Emperor Paul had suffered a violent death. His cruelty, his mad caprices, and his gloomy suspicions had so increased as to leave no doubt of his incurable insanity. A conspiracy was formed among his courtiers, of which Count Pahlen was chief. Paul was attacked in his bed-

**March 23, 1801.** chamber and, when he refused to abdicate, strangled to death. His



DEATH OF MARSHAL DESAIX.

son Alexander was then proclaimed Czar. "The crown, too nervous to punish, did not even venture to be angry, or to appear unthankful." The murderers were rewarded with riches and honors. Under such circumstances the peace of



ALEXANDER I.

Amiens could not last: at the close of the year the English again declared war, and Pitt became again prime minister. Meanwhile Napoleon had reduced Switzerland to dependence upon France, as he had

**May 18, 1803.** already subjugated Holland and Italy. By the "Act of Mediation" the constitution of the Swiss republic was so changed that

**Feb. 1803.** the cantons became independent again, but a Landamman and a Diet represented the union. "This furnished the desired 'medium' between unity and isolation."

#### § 504. THE NEW COURT AND THE CONCORDAT.

Bonaparte tried, in the beginning, to reconcile the old and the new; to unite the conquests of the Revolution with the manners and forms of the Monarchy. But his preference for the old conditions was soon manifest in the restoration of the

earlier arrangements and usages. At the court of the First Consul in the Tuileries the former costumes and fashions, the ancient forms of etiquette and the elegance of the royal period soon reappeared. Aristocratic bearing, refinement and fine manners were once more the marks of good society. The social tact of his wife Josephine, the beauty and amiability of his step-children (Eugene and Hortense Beauharnais), the handsome forms and striking talents of his sisters, greatly contributed to his success.\*

#### \* FAMILY TREE OF THE BONAPARTES OF AJACCIO CORSICA.

CARLO BONAPARTE—LETITIA RAMOLINI (†1836 at ROME).

1. Joseph. 1767—1844.	2 Napoleon. 1769—1821.	3 Lucian. 1772—1840.	4 Elisa—Bacciochi. 1777—1820.	5 Louis. 1778—1846.
6 Pauline—Borghese. 1781—1825.	7 Caroline—Murat. 1782—1839.			8 Jerome. 1784—1860.
Napoleon Bonaparte—Josephine Beauharnais (nee Jascher de la Pagerie). 1763—1814. Eugene. 1781—1824.				Prince Napoleon. Hortense—Louis Bonaparte. † 1837. Louis Napoleon III. 1848—1852, President of the Republic. 1852—1870, Emperor. † 1873, Exile in England.



Many of the emigrant nobles were permitted to return and treated with such favor that they soon entered the service of the New Regime. Madame De Staël (Necker's daughter) collected once more in her salon a company of cultivated and famous men. The vanity of the French also favored Napoleon's plans, and when he established the order of the Legion of Honor, Republicans and Royalists greedily struggled for this new evidence of human weakness. The restoration of the Christian worship in the French

*July 15, 1801.* churches was eagerly desired by Napoleon. He abolished the republican festivals, and restored the celebration of Sunday and then proceeded to negotiate with the Pope. This led to the CONCORDAT, whereby the French clergy lost their ancient independence and were made subject to the head of the church and the ruler

*April 18, 1802.* of the state. The system of education also attracted his attention, especially the institutions for practical knowledge like the polytechnic school of Paris. He made the schools wholly dependent upon the State. In a word Napoleon wished to govern everything by his own hand and his own will, and thus became the creator of that destructive centralization, which makes local government and self-reliance impossible in France.

#### § 505. CONSPIRACIES.

Napoleon had no pleasure in a free state. He limited therefore more and more the political rights of the citizens, prosecuted Jacobins and Republicans (Ideologists he called them), put his trust in his guard and his police, the three-fold strength of which was wielded by the cunning of Fouché. Repeated conspiracies against the life of the first consul were started, sometimes by Republicans, sometimes by Royalists, and these led to fresh restrictions and closer surveillance.

The boldest attempt of the time was by means of an infernal machine filled with powder and ball, as the consul was driving to the opera house. Napoleon

*December 24,* escaped

*1800.* through the promptness and presence of mind of his coachman, although many houses were destroyed and several persons killed. In consequence of this a great number of Jacobins were deported, although it was subsequently



CHATEAUBRIAND. (*E. Ronjat.*)

discovered that the plot originated among the royalists that surrounded the Count D'Artois. The conspiracies became more extensive and more dangerous, when

*August 2.* the consulate was conferred upon Napoleon for life, with the authority  
*1802.* to appoint his successor. This result of universal suffrage took away from the Bourbons their last hope, on which account the emigrants risked everything



NAPOLÉON I. (*Châtillon*)

to destroy Napoleon. George Cadoudal and General Pichegru, a giant in strength, were the agents in a fresh attempt at assassination: they traveled secretly from England to France, but, with about forty of their confederates, were detected and imprisoned. Before their fate was determined Napoleon was informed that the Duke D'Enghien, the chivalrous grandson of the Prince of Condé, was the soul of all these royalist conspiracies. He immediately ordered the young nobleman, then resident in

the town of Ettenheim in Baden to be arrested, hurried to Paris and condemned to death by a hurried court-martial. In spite of his magnanimous defense, *March 21, 1804.* he was ordered to be shot. All Europe was indignant at this indefensible crime; even the admirers of Napoleon were reduced to silence. The poet Chateaubriand, author of "The genius of Christianity" resigned the office which had been procured for him by Napoleon's sister, Elisa, and retired to Switzerland. Pichegru died in prison a violent death, whether by suicide or murder is unknown. George Cadoudal, with twelve conspirators, ascended the guillotine. General Moreau, accused of complicity with Pichegru's undertaking, and arbitrarily condemned to two years imprisonment, went into voluntary exile in America.

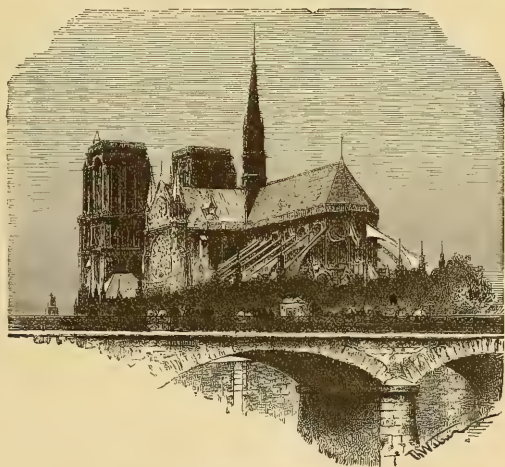
## II. NAPOLEON AS EMPEROR. (1804—1814.)

### § 506. 1.—THE EMPIRE.



HE royalist conspiracy was used by Napoleon for the establishment of an hereditary monarchy. His adherents in the tribunate proposed to confer upon Napoleon the imperial dignity; this was confirmed by the Senate and ratified by a vote of the entire population. While all hearts were yet throbbing with the recollection *May 18, 1804.* of the bloody execution, Napoleon I. was proclaimed Emperor of the French, and at the end of the year was solemnly

*Dec. 2, 1804.* consecrated by the Pope in the church of Notre Dame. The crown, however, was placed upon his own head and that of his kneeling consort, by his own hand. This coronation appeared to be the close of the revolution, since now all the old institutions, the abolition of which had cost thousands of human lives, gradually returned. The new Emperor surrounded his throne with a splendid court, at which the old titles, orders, and gradations of rank revived again in different form. He himself, it is true, preserved a military simplicity. But the members of his family became princes and princesses; his generals became marshals; faithful servants who furthered his plans, became great dignitaries of the crown, or were held fast to the new imperial throne as senators with large incomes. The creation of a new nobility with the old titles of prince, duke, count, baron, completed the magnificent structure of



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME, PARIS.



an imperial court, that outshone all other courts of Europe. The republican institutions gradually disappeared; the old calendar was reintroduced; the new nobility was allowed to create entailed estates: the press was put under censorship and civil freedom more and more restrained. The ruler would endure no criticism. Hence he diminished the number of tribunes to fifty, and in 1807 abolished the tribunate entirely. Obedience now became the sum of patriotic duty. And France stood under a tyranny more powerful than that of the ancient monarchy. But the tyrant was a great man who had saved France from ruin within and without. Therefore men submitted willingly and in spite of the hard conscription, the severe embargo, and the heavy taxation, the people bore their burdens more easily because many achievements of the revolution, like equality before the law, the peasant's right to possess landed property and religious freedom, remained untouched. Industry made great progress; arts and trades flourished exceedingly; unusual prosperity was everywhere visible. Splendid highways like those across the Alps, canals, bridges, public works of all sorts, are to this day the speaking monuments of this extraordinary man. Paris was adorned with magnificent palaces, majestic bridges, and splendid streets. In the Louvre was brought together all that art could show that was great and splendid. The University was established upon a magnificent plan, and made supreme and authoritative in the entire system of education. The glory of the nation made the yoke of the emperor easy. The people forgot the silence of freedom, amid the rattle of musketry and the blare of trumpets. They did not perceive that the arrogant tone of the war bulletin, and the splendid phrases of senators and legislators, eclipsed the truth and destroyed the love of candor.

## 2. AUSTERLITZ, PRESBURG, THE RHINE CONFEDERATION.

§ 507. The English made the outbreak of a new war with France an excuse for seizing Dutch and French ships; and invited Russia and Austria to a new coalition

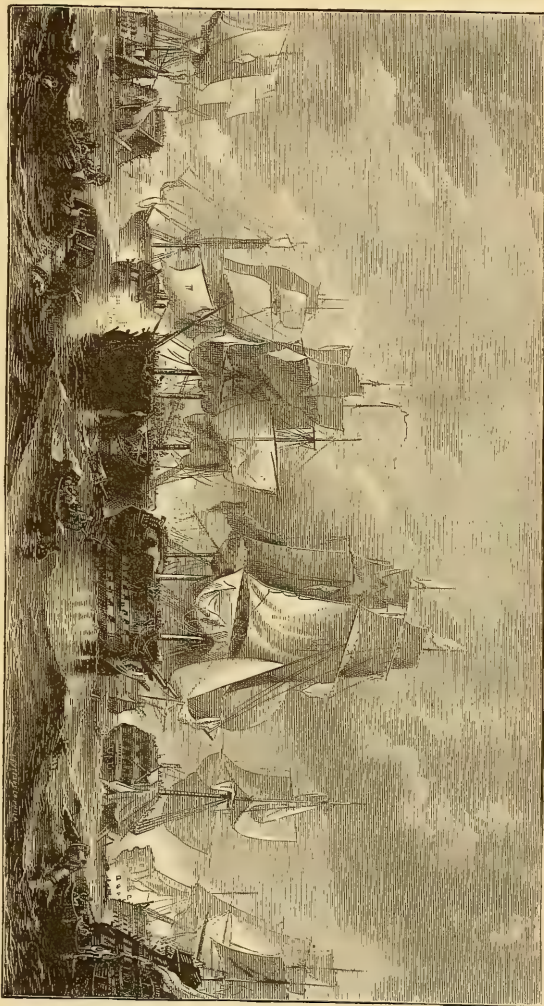
*May 1803.* Napoleon, on the other hand, marched his troops to the Weser in order to occupy Hanover, which at that time belonged to the English king. The people and army of Hanover were determined to risk life and property in the defense of their country, but the selfish nobility and the officials preferred a disgraceful capitulation, which gave up the entire land to the French, rather than to engage in desperate but honorable struggle. With gnashing teeth the brave army retreated across the Elbe and then disbanded; arms, munitions of war, and valuable horses fell into the hands of the French, who garrisoned the land with their troops and exhausted it with taxes and contributions. Many patriotic men of the Hanoverian army, entered the English service, and proved their bravery in the German legion on many fields of battle, far from home. The threatening position that Napoleon now assumed toward the entire North, as well as his arbitrary conduct in Holland, Italy, and other lands, caused the remaining powers no little anxiety. The Italian republic was transformed into an Italian kingdom, of which Eugene Beauharnais was made the

*March 2, 1805.* viceroy, and to it was annexed the Dukedom of Parma. Lucca was given to Napoleon's sister Elisa. In Spain and Germany also he acted with the same self-will, and as a consequence Russia, Austria, and Sweden united with England against France and renewed the war with great energy. Even in Prussia there was a strong party, at the head of which was the high-minded Queen Louise and the brave,

energetic, jovial, and talented Prince Ludwig Ferdinand, who urged an alliance with the coalition against Napoleon. But the three ministers were favorable to France and possessed the entire confidence of the irresolute, peace-loving king. So Prussia remained neutral to her own destruction.

§ 508. While the attention of all Europe was directed to the west coast of France, where Napoleon was preparing ships of all kinds, and collecting a great army at Boulogne, ostensibly to invade England, he was arranging quietly for the remarkable campaign of 1805. Having secured the support of the South German countries, he set forth with seven army-corps, crossed the Rhine, and marched into Suabia, while Bernadotte, without regard to the neutrality of Prussia, marched into Prussian territory, and pushed on to the Isar. Frederick William III. was so offended at this violation of his sovereignty, that he assumed a threatening attitude toward Napoleon, although not declaring war. With Napoleon were his famous marshals Ney, Lannes, Marmont, Soult, and Murat, and his army was

**Oct. 14, 1805.** strengthened by the troops of Baden, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria. The



NEILSON AT TRAFALGAR.

Dukes of Hesse and Nassau also supported him. In a short time the Austrian general, Mack, was shut up in Ulm, and cut off from the main army. Despairing of relief,

**Oct. 20.** the incompetent commander soon capitulated, and twenty-three thousand Austrians, (among them eighteen generals), were made prisoners. They surrendered also forty battle flags, and sixty mounted cannon. Mack was tried by a court-martial, and deprived of his rank and honors. But Napoleon's satisfaction, in his great

**Oct. 21.** victory, was greatly diminished, by the naval victory of the English at Trafalgar, in which the whole French fleet was destroyed, while the English lost their great hero, Nelson.

§ 509. In Prussia the war party was now in the ascendant. The King renewed

his alliance with the Czar Alexander, in the garrison church at Potsdam, the two monarchs swearing eternal friendship over the coffin of Frederick the Great. Haugwitz was then sent to Napoleon with threatening demands; but the French

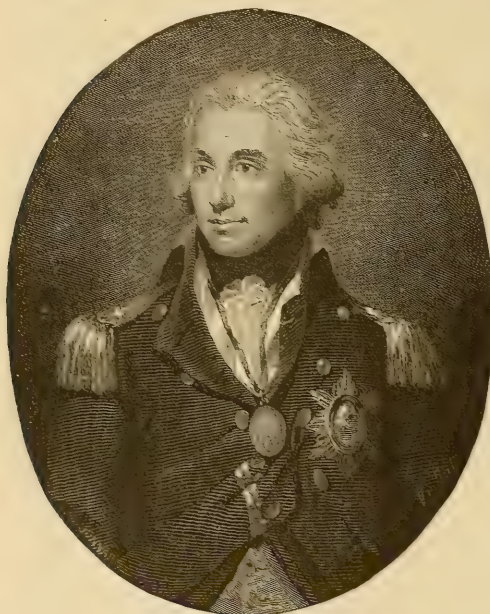
**Nov. 11, 1805.** emperor marched along the Danube, fighting several bloody battles with the Russians, under Kutusoff and Bagration. He found them harder to conquer than the Austrians, for Murat easily con-

**Nov. 13.** quered Vienna, as the Prince Auersperg failed to defend or to destroy the bridge across the river. The indecision of the Emperor Francis, and the want of harmony between the Austrians and the Russians, enabled the French to defeat the allied army, which they had pursued into Moravia.

**Dec. 2, 1805.** In the Battle of the Three Emperors' at Aus-

terlitz, the winter sun shone down upon Napoleon's most brilliant victory. The Emperor Francis, eager for the close of the war, now sought out Napoleon, and agreed to a truce, in which the withdrawal of the Russians from the Austrian states was

**Dec. 26.** determined. The Peace of Pressburg soon followed. Austria lost Venice (which was united to the kingdom of Italy), the Tyrol (which was given to Bavaria), and the Black Forest (which fell to Baden). Bavaria and Wurtemberg were raised to the rank of kingdoms. Baden was made a grand-duchy, and all three made matrimonial alliances with Napoleon. The daughter of Maximilian Joseph of Bavaria, became the wife of the Emperor's stepson, Eugene. Frederica Catherine, of



ADMIRAL LORD NELSON.



Wurtemberg, married Napoleon's frivolous brother Jerome, who, at the Emperor's command, abandoned his first wife Elizabeth Patterson of Baltimore. While Carl, the grandson of the Duke of Baden, married a niece of the Empress Josephine. The lands along the lower Rhine, with Dusseldorf as a capital, were given to the Emperor's brother-in-law, Joachim Murat. Holland too lost her independence, and Louis Napoleon was made her king. The royal family at Naples was next made to feel the wrath of the great soldier, for during the war, the combined Russian and English fleet had landed at Naples, and had been welcomed by the King and Queen.

**Dec. 22.** Napoleon now issued a decree, in connection with the peace of Pressburg, declaring that "the Bourbons in Naples had ceased to reign." The throne was given to Joseph Bonaparte, and a French army marched to Naples to install him in his new dignity. The royal family pleaded and stirred up rebellions, but were obliged to take refuge in Sicily, where they lived under English protection, till Napoleon's overthrow.

**Feb., 1806.** The conquered territories of Italy were divided into dukedoms, and given over to French marshals and statesmen, and when, two years later, Joseph was made king of Spain, Joachim Murat succeeded him as king of Naples. After the battle of Austerlitz, the Prussian ambassador, Haugwitz, did not venture to state his instructions to the victorious Emperor, but was induced, partly by threats and partly by apparent friendship, to sign a treaty, in which Prussia exchanged certain territories along the Rhine and in Switzerland for Hanover. The King was not consulted, and strove to escape the exchange, but was obliged to submit. The news of this sudden change in the situation so affected the English minister, Pitt, that he died soon after.

§ 510. The creation of the south German kingdoms dissolved the German Empire. Napoleon determined therefore to establish a Confederation of the Rhine, to withdraw southern and western Germany from Austrian influence, and to bind it to himself. A great number of princes and imperial cities entered into his plan, and a treaty was

**July, 1806.** signed in Paris on the 12th of July, 1806, by virtue of which, Napoleon became the protector of the Confederation, securing to each member of the union the sovereignty of his dominion, in return for the troops that each placed at French command. Dalberg, ruler of a small principality, became Napoleon's viceroy, in the Confederation, and many small principalities were consolidated, whereby the power of the larger princes was greatly increased. The Emperor Francis II., now abdicated, and withdrew all his states from the German alliance. "The Holy Roman Empire of the

**Aug. 6, 1806.** German nation" ceased to have a being, and Francis II. became Francis I., Emperor of Austria. Arndt was brave enough to give expression to the feelings that agitated German patriots, but few ventured to join him,—especially after



MARSHAL MURAT.

*Aug. 26, 1806.* the publisher, Palm, of Nuremburg, was shot, for refusing to reveal the author of a pamphlet published by him, called "The Humiliation of Germany."

### 3. JENA, TILSIT, ERFURT.

§ 511. The wavering attitude of Prussia had angered Napoleon : he deemed the king's friendship unreliable, and his hostility of little moment. The formation of the Confederation of the Rhine was evidently intended to make Germany as dependent upon the French Empire as Italy and Holland. Prussia sought therefore to counteract it, by the formation of a Northern Union : and when Napoleon, by his intrigues, destroyed the undertaking, the King was deeply offended. In the second place, the French Emperor offered to return Hanover to the English, without so much as consulting the Prussian government. In the third place, the frontiers were constantly violated by the French commanders. Prussia ventured at last to present an ultimatum, to mobilize her armies, and to break off communications with Paris.

§ 512. While they were waiting for an answer in Berlin, the French troops, under Napoleon and his marshals, were already in the heart of Thuringia and Saxony.

*Oct. 10, 1806.* An engagement took place at Saalfeld, where the Prussians were

*Oct. 14.* defeated ; but in the battle of Jena they were completely overwhelmed. This battle determined the fate of the country between the Rhine and the Elbe. The leaders of the Prussian army had neither plan nor council ; in their arrogance, they had expected victory, and had made no arrangement for retreat. The army separated, and was captured in detachments. Blücher alone was able to save the honor of Prussia at Lübeck, although he could not hinder the horrors that attended the storming of the city. Thirteen days after the battle of Jena, Napoleon marched into Berlin, and issued his decrees from the Prussian capital. The Elector of Hesse, who had refused to join the French, was deprived of army and of country, and driven forth a fugitive. The Duke of Brunswick, who had been carried to his home upon a stretcher, had to be carried further into Denmark, in order to die a quiet death. Hamburg, Bremen, and Leipzig were loaded down with war taxes, and the treasures of art and science were carried away from all the leading cities of Germany. Saxony alone was spared. The

*Dec., 1806.* Saxon prisoners of war were set at liberty, and the title of king was given to the elector, who was permitted to join the Confederation of the Rhine. Gratitude for his own salvation and the salvation of his people, held Frederick Augustus firmly attached to the French Emperor, in the trying days to come.

§ 513. The King of Prussia fled to Königsberg, and in his distress, turned to his friend, the Czar Alexander, who sent a Russian army under Bennigsen to East Prussia, to prevent the French from crossing the Vistula. Napoleon then issued a proclamation to the Poles, in the name of Kosciuszko, in which the people were urged to take up arms for freedom. The Poles made the greatest sacrifices, and strengthened the ranks of the French with brave soldiers under General Dombrowski. Napoleon

*Jan. 2, 1807.* entered Warsaw amid the shouts of the people, but did nothing to satisfy their longing for independence. Murderous battles were now fought on the

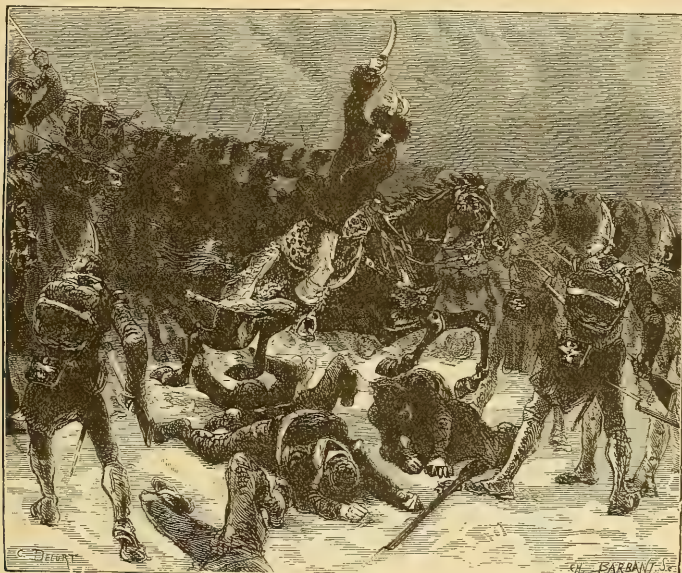
*Feb. 8, 1807.* banks of the Vistula, but the great battle was that of Eylau, where the courage of the French, Russians, and Prussians alike was sublime and the slaughter appalling. Both sides claimed the victory, and the exhaustion of all was so great, that the war was not resumed till four months later. The Prussian king was anxious for

peace, but the negotiations led to no result. Finally, his Silesian fortresses were taken

*May. 25.* by the French, and even Danzig was surrendered. The King then despaired of success, and when the French defeated the Russians in the battle of Fried-

*June 14.* land, and occupied Königsberg, the allied monarchs determined upon a personal interview with Napoleon at Memel, in which they agreed to the peace of Til-

*July 7-9.* sit. Frederick William lost the half of his dominion, all the lands between the Rhine and the Elbe. He consented also to the founding of the duchy of Warsaw, and to the erection of Danzig into a free city. He was obliged, moreover, to pay to the French Emperor \$120,000,000. The territory ceded by Prussia was united with Brunswick; Hesse and South Hanover were formed into the kingdom of West-



MURAT AT EYLAU. (C. Delort.)

phalia, of which Cassel was made the capital. This kingdom was given to Napoleon's youngest brother Jerome.

§ 514. Austerlitz and Jena broke the power of Austria and Prussia. The fate of Europe now depended upon France, England, and Russia. All three recognized one right only, that of self-defence, as was soon shown in Sweden and in Denmark. King Gustavus IV. of Sweden, at the instigation of England, continued the war alone against Napoleon. His obstinacy, and his over-estimate of his powers, indicated a disordered mind. He refused Napoleon, the imperial title, and called him always General Bonaparte, and he believed that he was called by Providence to restore the bournons, that Napoleon was the beast described in Revelation whom he, Gustavus,



was appointed to overthrow. Nevertheless, the French conquered Stralsund, while the Russians invaded Finland. Meanwhile the French emperor was trying to destroy British commerce, by his continental blockade. This made the Swedish war of great importance for the English: the French might get possession of the Baltic, and shut off English ships from the Baltic coast. They offered Denmark their alliance, but

**Sept. 2-5, 1807.** this was refused. An English fleet thereupon bombarded Copenhagen, reduced a part of the city to ashes, and carried off the Danish fleet. Denmark was so embittered, that she allied herself to France, declaring war upon the English and their ally, the Swedish king. Alexander also had joined Napoleon at the famous meeting in Erfurt, where four kings and thirty-four princes were present. The two emperors agreed with each other, that Napoleon should conquer Spain, and Alexander, Finland, Moldavia, and Walachia. Sweden was now threatened from all sides by the Russians, by the Danes, and by the Spanish troops that were serving under Napoleon. And though the Swedish army was in a wretched condition, the stubborn king refused all terms. This led to a conspiracy in Stockholm and in the army, in consequence of

**March 13, 1809.** which, Gustavus IV. was made a prisoner, and deprived of his throne. The revolution was followed by a peace, in which Finland was ceded to the Russians.

**Aug. 21, 1810.** and finally the Marshal Bernadotte was made the adopted son of Carl XIII., and ascended the throne of Sweden as Carl XIV. Gustavus IV. was permitted to go to Germany, and under the name of Colonel Gustavson, he lived an uncertain life, separated from his family, and in voluntary poverty, until he died in 1837.

#### 4. THE PENINSULAR WAR.

§ 515. Intoxicated by his success, Napoleon advanced continually to new undertakings. Like his model, Carl the Great, he determined to unite the South and West of Europe into a great empire, under the control of France. To that end he sought to annex the Spanish peninsula and to bring all Italy under his control. He demanded of Portugal that she should renounce her alliance with England, and exclude British ships from her harbors. The court of Lisbon refused. Napoleon thereupon obtained the support of Godoy, the powerful favorite of the Spanish king and queen, and then sent Marshal Junot, with an army, through Spain into Portugal. The frightened King at Lisbon fled with his treasures to Brazil, whereupon Junot was cre-

**Nov. 30, 1807.** ated Duke of Abrantes, ordered to take possession of the whole land

**Feb. 1, 1808.** in the name of his Emperor, and to proclaim that the "House of Braganza had ceased to rule." Godoy, the Spaniard, who had neither virtue, merit, nor talent, who had become absolute ruler in Spain only by the favor of the immoral queen, and the impotent king Charles IV., now betrayed his country into the hands of Napoleon. Spanish troops, under La Romana, entered the Emperor's service to fight against the Swedes, while French soldiers occupied Spain. But the Spanish people became restless: tumults arose in Madrid, in which the palace of the hated favorite was plundered,

**March, 1808.** and he himself threatened with death. The feeble king, Charles IV., alarmed by these events, abdicated in favor of his eldest son, Ferdinand, whom the people loved, because of his opposition to Godoy. But although Ferdinand humbly sought from Napoleon a confirmation of this change, seeking at the same time to marry one of Napoleon's relatives, the French ruler sent Murat to occupy Madrid, and then invited Ferdinand, with his parents, to an interview with himself and Godoy.

Ferdinand went to Bayonne, in spite of the remonstrances of his friends, and the reluctance of his people. But the Spanish family was soon involved in the web of Napoleon's intrigues. Charles IV. revoked his abdication, and made over the crown to Napoleon and his family. Ferdinand had not the courage or the intelligence to protest. In the enjoyment of a pension, he took up his residence in France, while Charles IV., with his family, settled down in Rome. Joseph Bonaparte was now made king of Spain. A Cortes-constitution was adopted. The judicial and administrative systems were improved. But the dreadful insurrection in Madrid in which 1200 French soldiers were slain, showed that the nation itself would not submit so easily to foreign rule as the impotent dynasty had done.

§ 516. Before Joseph had entered Madrid, Juntas were formed in different cities, which undertook the conduct of affairs, and refused obedience to the new king; these were defended by armed bands called Guerillas, who made continual war upon the French troops. The more cultivated citizens were reconciled to the new order, as it gave them more freedom than they had known under the absolute monarchy and priestly rule, but the great mass of the people followed their clergy, to whom the French were a terror. Napoleon's army was strong enough to keep the King and his ministers in Madrid, but their authority went no further than the French bayonets. The more distant cities and districts either followed the Juntas, or acted independently, yet Spain, in these stormy years, was really saved by this anarchy, in-as much as each city and district must be conquered separately. All Europe looked in astonishment upon the struggle of a people who marched bravely to death for their nationality and independence, for their old customs and religious usages, for their belief and their traditional institutions. The Guerillas avoided open conflict. Their strength consisted in surprises and petty warfare, and while the French were wearing out their forces in scattered fights, and besieging well-defended cities, the English began their

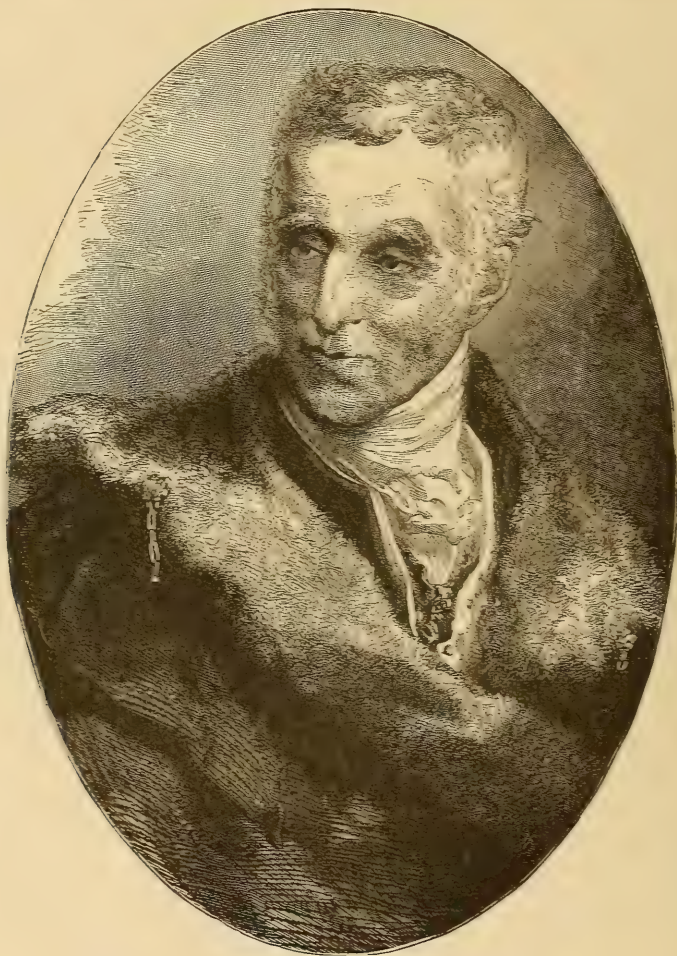


E. BONFAT.

JOSEPH BONAPARTE.

first successful war against Napoleon. In the beginning, the French arms were victor-

*July 14. 1808.* ious. The undisciplined troops of the Spanish were defeated at Rio Cecco by Bessières, but Dupont was forced to surrender his twenty thousand Frenchmen



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

*July 22.* in Andalusia. This great victory filled the Spanish with enthusiasm ; king Joseph abandoned Madrid, the French armies retreated across the Ebro. The





THE SIEGE OF SARAGOSSA. (*C. Delort.*)

(pp. 607.)

English, under Wellesley (Wellington) and other generals, would have captured the entire French army, if the capitulation of Cintra had not given to Junot's troops a free passage back to France.

§ 517. Napoleon himself now marched at the head of an army into Spain to redeem the French cause. The insurgent troops were soon defeated, so that, after four

*Aug. 30, 1808.* weeks, the Emperor could reinstate his brother Joseph in Madrid.

While Napoleon was seeking to win over the Spaniards by mingled conciliation and severity, his generals were fighting bloody battles with the Guerillas and the English

*Feb. 20, 1809.* armies. Saragossa was taken after a desperate resistance. General

*July 28, 1809.* Moore was killed, and although Wellington won the battle of Talavera, he was nevertheless compelled to keep within the boundaries of Portugal. Seville and Andalusia fell into the hands of the French, but the Spaniards would not yield; the central Junta removed to Cadiz, which defied all attacks; and the Spanish general, La Romana, now escaped from Denmark with his troops, to take charge of the war against Napoleon. The new war with Austria called the Emperor away from Spain, but he left behind him a numerous army, consisting chiefly of German troops. At the close of the Austrian campaign, this was increased to 300,000 men, and under the command of the ablest French generals (Soult, Massena, Ney, Marmont, McDonald), marched through the peninsula in all directions; but their victories only intensified the hatred of the Spanish people. Petty warfare became assassination; the greatest achievements of Napoleon's warriors, their fatiguing marches through mountains and ravines, their sieges and their storms, did not give them possession of the land. Mas-

*Jan.-May, 1811.* sena's daring campaign to Portugal was brought to naught by the sharp-sighted Wellington, who erected the lines of Torres Vedras, against which the French shattered their strength in vain. Massena was compelled to retreat; the Emperor removed him in a fit of rage, and gave the command of the Spanish army to Marshal Soult. Meanwhile the Cortes assembled in Paris, and proclaimed a new constitution, known as the Constitution of the Year 12. This destroyed forever absolute monarchy and priestly authority in Spain. But the Spanish clergy made it hateful to the Spanish people.

§ 518. The Russian campaign of 1812 compelled the Emperor to reduce the Spanish army. Wellington thereupon marched into Spain, supported by the Gueril-

*July 22, 1812.* las; the British armies were soon victorious. Marmont was defeated at Salamanca by Wellington. The English entered Madrid and drove out the French king. Suchet and Soult, brave and rapacious, were still victorious, and Joseph was

able once more to occupy his uncertain throne, but the terrible catastrophe of the Russian campaign demoralized the French armies in the Spanish peninsula, and Joseph was compelled once more to leave. After defeating the French at Vittoria, Wellington

*June 21, 1813.* pursued them across the Pyrenees, but was stoutly resisted by Marshal Soult. On the 10th of April, 1813, while the allies were encamping in Paris, the Marshal defended himself against Wellington with great energy at Toulouse, although compelled to retreat by superior numbers. Napoleon's overthrow restored Ferdinand VII. to the Spanish throne.

§ 519. *The Imprisonment of the Pope.* When the Pope refused to close the harbors of the papal state to the English ships, and to form an alliance with France, Napoleon subjected him to a series of insults, and annexed a part of his territory to the

Italian kingdom. But the steadfast pontiff neither bent nor broke. On the contrary, in the second war against Austria, he allied himself with the enemies of the French emperor. Napoleon thereupon decreed the abolition of the temporal power of the Pope,

*May 10, 1809.* and when the holy father excommunicated him, he carried him away

*July 6.* from Rome, exiled the cardinals, and annexed the States of the Church to French territory. Pius VII. lived in different cities, until he was finally ordered to reside in Fontainebleau. When he stubbornly refused to fill the vacant bishoprics, or to perform any act of ecclesiastical authority as long as he remained in captivity, and was deprived of the council of the cardinals, Napoleon was compelled to more

*Jan. 25, 1813.* arbitrary measures. But the Pope was finally induced, in a personal interview with the Emperor, to make important concessions. Yet the course of events soon released the head of the church, and restored his temporal sovereignty.

## 5. THE SECOND AUSTRIAN WAR. HOFER. SCHILL (1809).

§ 520. Napoleon's violence in Italy and his growing influence in Germany, startled Austria. The Vienna cabinet determined to try again the fortune of war. The Spanish uprising, the discontent with the European blockade, the movements in North Germany seemed to indicate that the hour of Austria had struck, that now was the time to recover her lost power, and to break the foreign tyranny. But the magic of the Napoleonic name was all too powerful. The princes of the Rhine Confederation still strengthened the French army with their troops, and the soldiers of South Germany poured out their blood for a foreign ruler in a struggle against their own countrymen. In April the Austrian armies, under the Arch-duke Carl, marched into Bavaria

*1809.* and Italy. But Napoleon marched along the Danube, forcing his ene-

*April 10-24,* mies across the Inn, and invading Austria for a second time. On the

*1809.* 10th of May he was at the gates of Vienna, and in three days he entered it as a conqueror. Just below Vienna, where several bridges spanned the Danube, the French armies attempted to get across. But in the two days' battle of As-

*May 21-22.* pern and Essling, they were compelled to abandon the project. Fifteen thousand French soldiers covered the battle-field, and for the first time, the belief in

*June 14.* Napoleon's invincibility was shaken. Not until reinforcements arrived from Italy could the French army get across the river. The Arch-duke Carl was then

*July 5-6.* defeated in the great battle of Wagram, and compelled to retreat. The loss on both sides was about equal, but it was plain that the French no longer possessed their former mastery in the field. Nevertheless, Austria concluded hastily

*July 12.* the truce of Znaim, with a view to permanent peace.

§ 521. This truce was disastrous to the Tyroleans. These mountaineers held with fidelity to Austria, and had risen to throw off the rule of Bavaria, to which the Tyrol had been ceded in the peace of Pressburg. Confident of Austrian help, they seized their muskets and attacked the French from the heights and defiles of their mountains. Their chief was Andreas Hofer, a man of great strength and bravery, beloved for his piety and his patriotism. A terrible conflict ensued. The Bavarians abandoned the Tyrol, and Hofer took possession of Innsbruck. The truce of Znaim

*Oct. 14, 1809.* made the insurgents irresolute, without ending the struggle. But the peace of Vienna, in which Austria lost 50,000 square miles and 3,000,000 inhabitants, took from the Tyroleans all hope of aid. The Bavarians and the French marched into



**Feb. 20, 1810.** the country. Innsbruck fell to Bavaria. Most of the leaders fled, but Hofer was captured and shot in Mantua. The Tyrol was divided into three parts.

§ 522. During the second Austrian war, other parts of Germany attempted to

**April, 1810.** shake off the foreign yoke. An attempt was made to overthrow the King of Westphalia. This failed. Mayor von Schill, with a troop of volunteers, sought to stir up the people of North Germany against the French. Schill was driven into Stralsund, whence he expected to escape to England. But he was captured and



THE LAST CALL TO ARMS. (*From De Witt's History.*)

**May 31, 1809.** were either slain or taken prisoners, and the prisoners sent to the galleys or shot. Duke William of Brunswick was more successful. Scorning the truce of Znaim, he fought his way through hostile lands and armies to the North Sea, and escaped to England. Staps, a lad who attempted to assassinate Napoleon, was

**Oct. 12, 1809.** seized and put to death. But in Prussia the high-minded Baron Stein was making preparations of another fashion. Patriotic men were now in charge of affairs, and Stein was seeking to elevate both citizen and peasant, the former by introducing new municipal institutions, the latter by the creation of peasant freeholds



ANDREAS HOFER ON THE ISEL HILL. (F. Defregger.)



and the abolition of serfdom. He introduced also liberty of trade, and abolished many mediæval privileges. In a word, he established civil equality, which he regarded as the pillar of any permanent throne. Stein's leading principle was the emancipation of energy, the removal of all fetters upon the freedom of property and of person. He sought to promote industry, to awaken the sense of community, and to have all men



FERDINAND VON SCHILL.

participate in the welfare of the nation. His reforms made it possible for the Prussian state to recover from the terrible calamity of Jena. Scharnhorst reorganized the army. He introduced universal service, opened to all the possibilities of rank, and abolished all degrading punishments. The King, it is true, was soon

1808. compelled to sacrifice Stein to the hatred of Napoleon, but Stein's creations remained, and are the foundation upon which modern Prussia rests. His successor, Hardenberg, followed his principles as much as possible, and the "Union of Patriots," to which the noblest men of the country belonged, as well as the new University of Berlin, nourished and strengthened patriotic feeling, especially among ambitious youth.

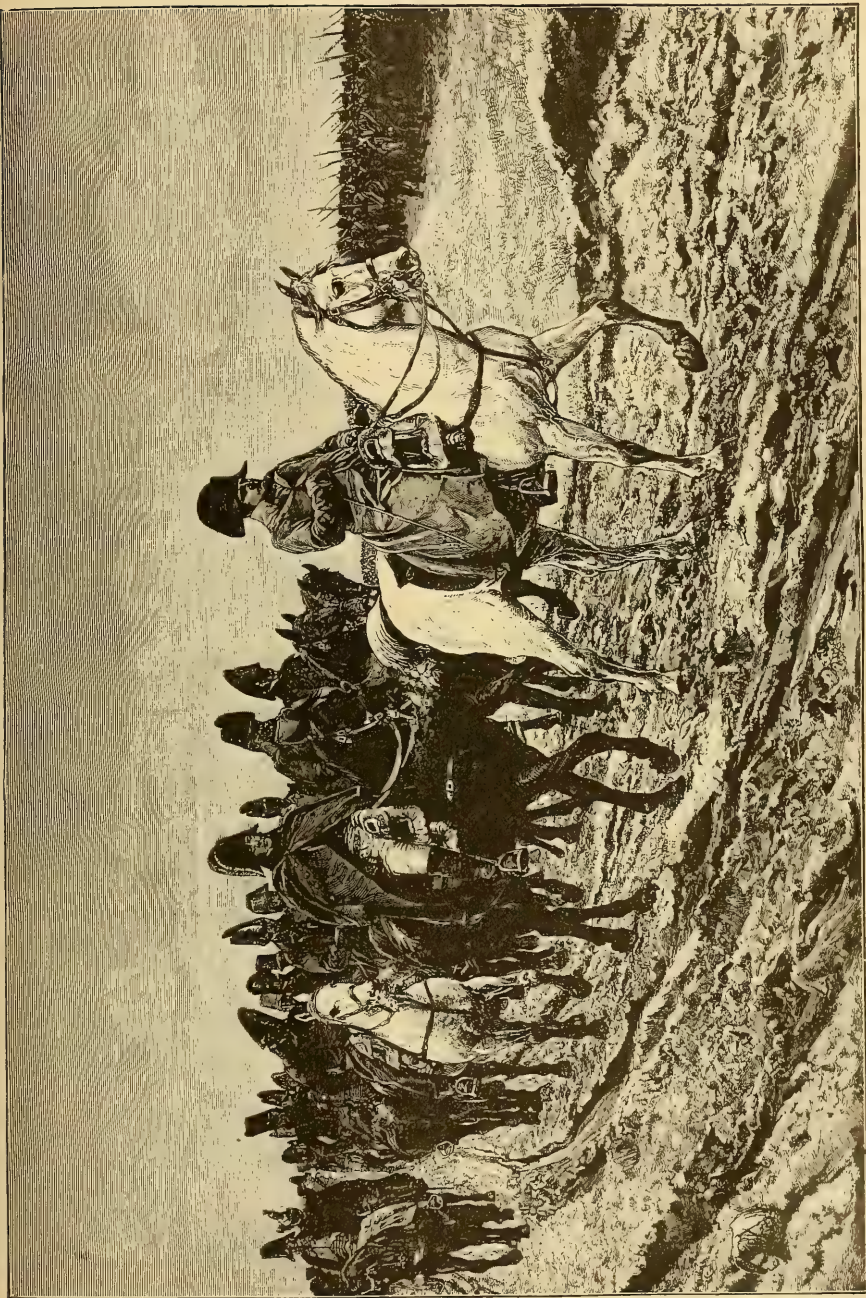
§ 523. *The French Empire at the Climax of Its Power.* Napoleon was now tormented by the thought that he was without an heir. He therefore put aside the Empress Josephine, alleging a defect in their marriage, and wedded Marie Louise, daughter of the Emperor of Austria. On the 2nd of April, 1810, "the daughter of the Cæsars," whose train was carried by five queens, became his wife. In the next year, a son was born to the Emperor, who was given the title King of Rome. But Napoleon's pride and ambition drove him to new acts of violence. Annexations and exchanges of land were without end. The Continental Blockade was the despair of commerce and of industry. When King Louis of Holland sought to protect the rights of his people, he was compelled to abdicate by his angry brother, and

July 9, 1810. Holland was annexed to France. Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, the Duchy of Oldenburg, the lands between the Rhine and the Elbe were added to the French empire, which now controlled the entire coast of the North Sea, and numbered 130 departments. And Hamburg was occupied by French troops. Meanwhile, a terrible police system destroyed the last remnant of freedom, threatening every suspect with arrest and imprisonment. Caprice, passion, and tyranny, took the place of right and law. Blockade, oppressive taxation, conscription, were the burdens imposed upon the allied countries, while hostile peoples were oppressed with forced loans and quartered troops.

## 6. THE WAR AGAINST RUSSIA (1812.)

§ 524. The extension of the French empire to the coast of the Baltic and the taking away of his land from the Duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of the Russian Czar, destroyed completely the friendship between Alexander and Napoleon, which





ON THE ROAD TO RUSSIA. (*E. Meissonier.*)

was already greatly shattered by the enlargement of the duchy of Warsaw, and by the intrigues leading to Napoleon's marriage. This ill-feeling was increased when the Russian government issued a new tariff, preventing the import of French goods. Both powers now equipped themselves for the desperate struggle. Russia made peace with the Turks, and formed an alliance with Bernadotte of Sweden, whom Napoleon had grossly injured. The French emperor, on the other hand, made an alliance with Prussia and Austria, and thereby increased his strength considerably. Alexander's demand that the French garrisons should evacuate Pomerania and Prussia, led to an immediate declaration of war.

§ 525. In May, Napoleon appeared with the Empress in Dresden, where the  
1812. Princes of the Rhine, the Emperor of Austria, and the King of Prussia,



MARIE-LOUISE.

united to do honor to the mighty man who had summoned half Europe to the war against Russia. After ten days' delay among the princes, Napoleon hastened to his army of half a million men. This army was scattered between the Vistula and the Niemen, with its thousand cannon and its 20,000 wagons. The left wing, composed of Prussians and Poles, was commanded by Macdonald, and was stationed on the Baltic coast; the right, which consisted of the Austrians under Schwarzenberg, and of a French and a Saxon division, confronted the Russian Army of the South. The main

*June.* army, commanded by Napoleon himself, marched into Wilna. The appearance of the French aroused the Poles to wild hope and warlike enthusiasm. The diet of Warsaw proclaimed the restoration of the kingdom of Poland. But this was not to Napoleon's mind. He prohibited an uprising, and declared that out of regard to Austria, he could not consent to the re-establishment of the Polish Republic. Nevertheless Polish soldiers followed the imperial eagles, and the Polish people sup-

*July.* ported the foreign troops, which were now marching from Wilna to Witepsk. The rains were terrible, and hundreds perished of fatigue. Moscow, the heart of Russia, was Napoleon's goal. But the ways were impassable; his supplies did not reach him; the land could not support his troops; diseases thinned out the ranks of the army, and filled his hospitals with helpless soldiers.

§ 526. The Russian generals, Barclay de Tolly and Bagration, carried on the





(pp. 615.)

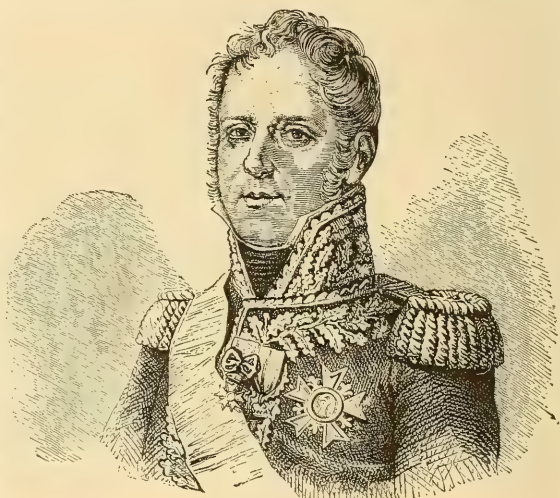
RETREAT FROM MOSCOW. (C. Delort.)



war in Parthian fashion, avoiding a pitched battle, and enticing the Emperor into the heart of the country. Not until he reached Smolensk, did the troops engage; where,

*Aug. 12, 1812.* after fighting the whole day, the Russians withdrew in the night, having set fire to the city. In Smolensk, Napoleon called a council of war, and in spite of his generals' advice, he determined upon the conquest of Moscow, where he expected to winter. The Russians, on the other hand, complained of Barclay's inactivity, as the ancient Romans complained of Fabius. Alexander consequently appointed Kutusoff to command the army. This general was a native Russian devoted to the Greek religion and to old Russian customs, and accordingly very popular among the masses. He certainly (they thought) would never permit the Holy City of Moscow, with its countless towers and gilded domes, to fall into the hands of the

*Sept. 7, 1812.* French. He halted the army, and delivered battle at Borodino, where the French maintained possession of the field, while the Russians retired in good order. Over 70,000 dead and wounded covered the scene of conflict. Ney, the Prince of Moscovy, was the hero of the day. On the 14th of September, the French entered Moscow. The nobility and the wealthy had already left. When the French army marched through the streets, they were startled to discover only a few vagrants. But what was their horror, when the city broke into flames, and for four days, all was converted

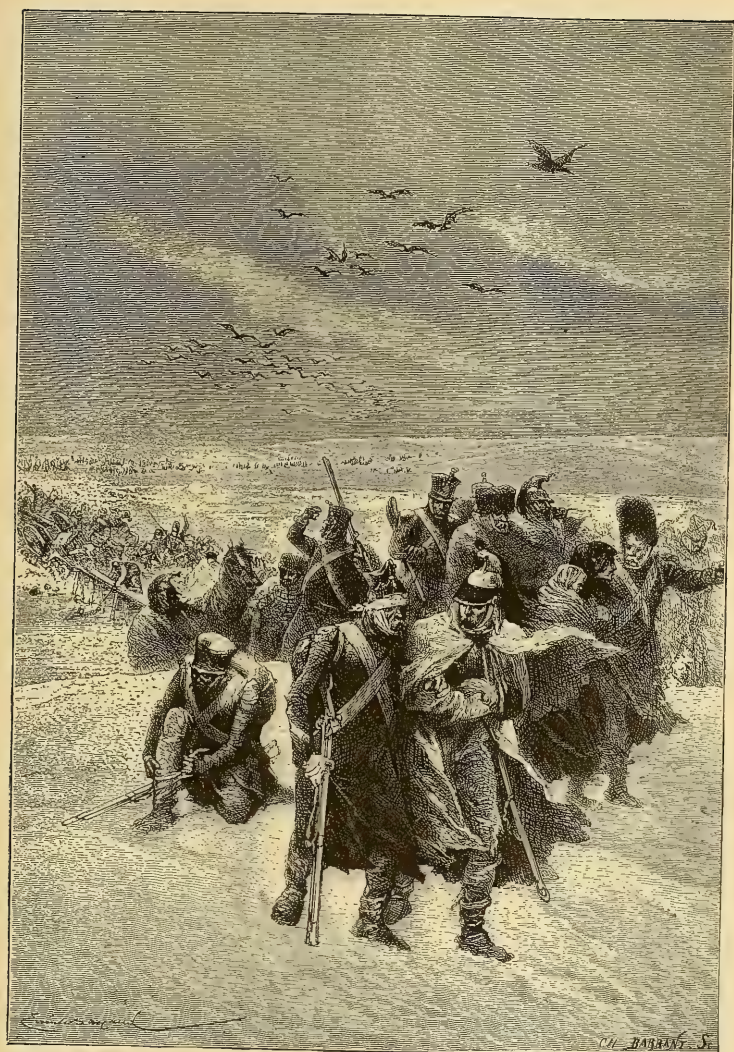


MARSHAL NEY.

*Sept. 15, 1812.* into a sea of fire! The commander of the city, Rostoptschin, had ordered the conflagration without the Czar's command, thinking to deprive the grand army of winter quarters, and to compel a disastrous retreat. Forgetting all discipline, the soldiers plunged into the burning houses, to satisfy their greed and their passions.

§ 527. The Russians were bent upon a war of destruction, yet Napoleon remained thirty-four days in Moscow, hoping for peace, and refusing to see that Kutusoff was holding him off, until the winter-cold might enable him to destroy utterly

*Oct. 24.* the retreating army. Not until October was the command given for the disastrous retreat. After destroying the Kremlin, the army proceeded to Smolensk. In November the cold was ten degrees below zero, and later on it reached thirty. Hunger, frost, and fatigue made more victims than the bullets of the Rus-



CROSSING THE BERESINA.

(pp. 617.)

sians, and the lances of the Cossacks. Thousands of starving and freezing soldiers strewed the highways and the fields. Kutusoff issued a proclamation, ascribing the burning of Moscow to the French, thus stirring up the people to bitter hatred against the retreating foe, and compelling the latter to fight at every step. Smolensk was reached by the middle of November, and the army counted at that time but forty thousand active combatants. Thirty thousand unarmed stragglers followed in their wake, without discipline, order, or commanders, the picture of misery and horror. Arrived in Smolensk, the expected supplies of clothing, food, and arms were not to be found, while the enemy appeared in ever increasing numbers. Ney, "the bravest of the brave," brought up the rear guard. His passage of the Dnieper, in the night, was



BURNING OF MOSCOW. GRAND ARMY LEAVING KREMLIN. (C. Delort.)

one of the boldest achievements recorded in human history. On the 25th of November, the army arrived at the river Berasina. Two bridges were erected in sight of the enemy, and the little remnant passed over, amid countless dangers. But eighteen thousand stragglers fell into the hands of the foe. How many were drowned in the ice-cold waters of the river, or trampled to death in the rush, no man could tell! At the

*Nov. 26-29, 1812.* passage of the Berasina, Napoleon had eight thousand active soldiers left. Ney was the last man to cross; half of Europe was in mourning. On the 3rd of December Napoleon published the famous twenty-ninth bulletin, which informed the anxious nations, who had been for months without news, that the Emperor was safe, but the great army was annihilated. Two days later, he turned over the command to Murat, and hastened to Paris to levy new recruits.

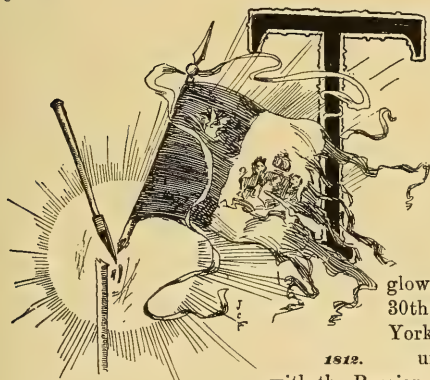




## D. DISSOLUTION OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE AND ESTABLISHMENT OF NEW CONDITIONS.

### I. THE GERMAN WAR OF LIBERATION AND DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON.

§ 528



1812.

his troops withdrew from further conflict. This act was, to be sure, publicly disavowed in Berlin, but the king's journey to Breslau, where many patriotic men gathered about

1813.

him, was the first step toward an alliance with Russia, which was agreed upon in February under the active influence of Stein. The outrageous treatment of Prussia had created such a hatred toward the foreign tyranny, that the King's "Call to

March 17.

my people" urging them to volunteer against the French, produced an incredible enthusiasm. Striplings and men alike abandoned their ordinary avocations and their homes to take part in the liberation of the Fatherland; students and teachers left their lecture rooms, public officers their desks, young noblemen the paternal es-

(619)

tate, and seizing musket and knapsack, took their places as privates in the same rank with the artisan, who had just come from his workshop, and with the peasant who had

*March 10.* exchanged the plow for the sword. The order of the Iron Cross

*March 25.* founded on the birthday of Queen Louise was a spur to the brave, and

*1813.* the proclamation of Kalisch, calling upon them to struggle for the rights, the freedom, and independence of all the states of Europe, filled them with hope and expectation.

§ 529. The allied monarchs sought the support of the king of Saxony, but Frederick Augustus resisted their urgent entreaties ; gratitude for so many proofs of favor and confidence given him by Napoleon and fear of his wrath kept him faithful to the French emperor. He placed his dominions, his fortresses, and his troops at the disposal of his mighty ally, and thus Saxony became the theatre of the war. In the first

*May 2.* battle at Lützen and Bautzen, the French held the field and drove

*May 20.* their adversaries across the Oder, but the courage of the young German

*1813.* warriors taught the enemy that another spirit than that of Jena had



PRINCE METTERNICH.

come upon the Prussians. Here Scharnhorst received his mortal wound, and among the thousands who lay dead upon the field was Napoleon's friend and favorite Duroc. The death of the latter filled Napoleon with gloomy forebodings, but pride and arrogance carried him forward. In vain did Prince Metternich attempt to mediate a peace. Napoleon refused to cede the smallest portion of the conquered land. Austria now declared war upon France. The battle of Dresden followed. Napoleon was, however,

victorious once more and exulted to see his old rival Moreau, who had been

*Aug. 26-27.* brought from America by the Emperor Alexander, carried dying from

*1813.* the field. But the fruits of the victory at Dresden were destroyed,

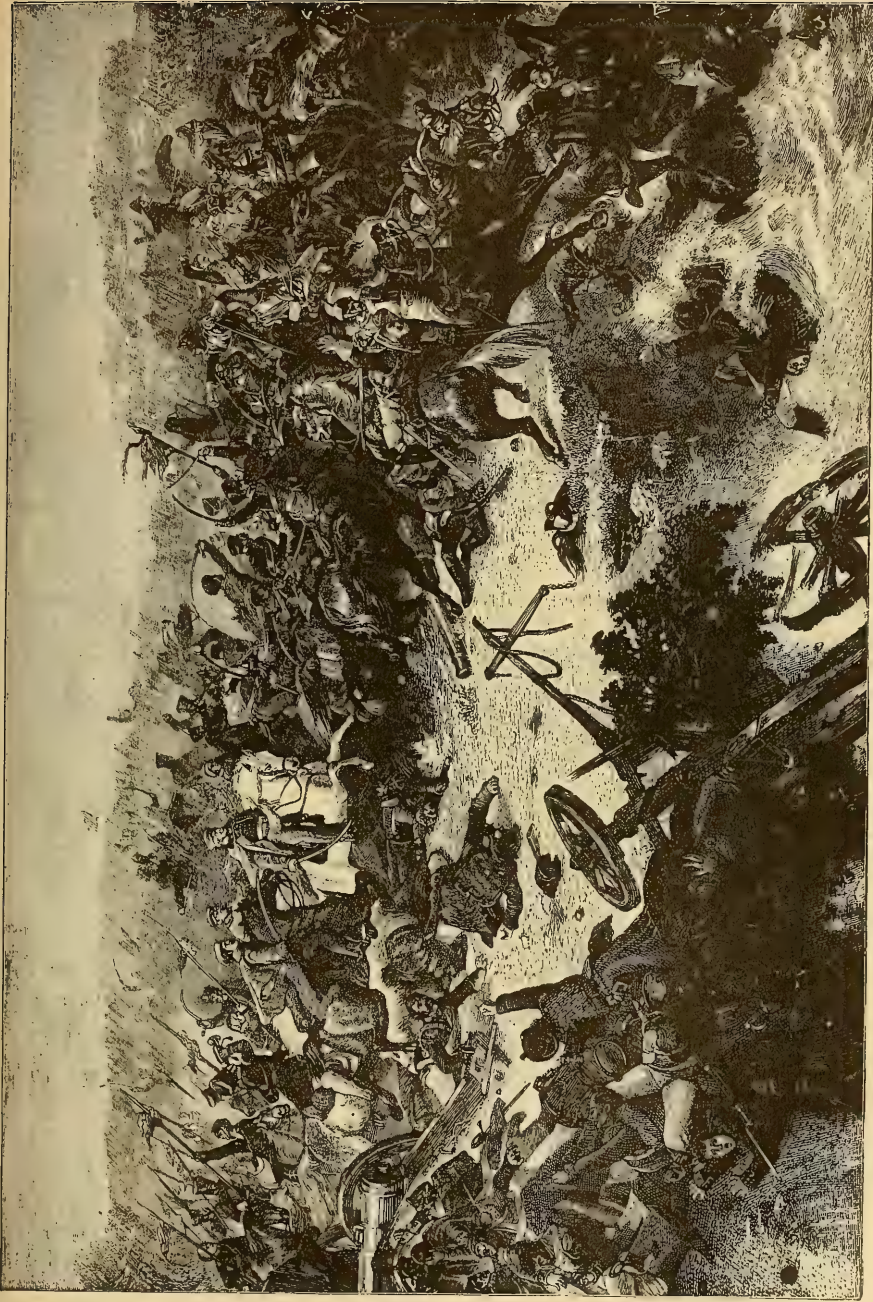
*Aug. 26.* first by a victory of Blücher in the battle of Katzbach ; second by

*Aug. 30.* the capture of the French General Vandamme with his whole army, at

*Sep. 6.* the battle of Kulm ; third, by the splendid achievements of the united

Prussian and Swedish army which prevented the taking of Berlin by the French ;





BATTLE OF KATZBACH.



*Aug. 27.* and fourth, by the engagement at Hagelberg, where the Landwehr beat down the enemy with bayonets and the butts of their muskets; and a few weeks after this the Silesian army was united with the army of the north, Count York having  
*Oct. 3.* crossed the Elbe in sight of the enemy and wrung from him a glorious victory at Wartenburg.

§ 530. The princes of the Rhine Confederation now began to abandon Napoleon, Bavaria concluding an alliance with Austria. In October the armies concentrated in front of Leipzig; the Austrians under Prince Schwartzemberg, who commanded the entire allied force, the Russians under Barclay, Bennigsen and others; the Prussians under Blücher; the Swedes under Bernadotte. The allied troops numbered three hundred thousand men, the army of Napoleon only one hundred thousand. The allies, however, were weakened by the want of harmony among their leaders. Yet Napoleon

*October*

*10, 17, 18,*

*1813.*

developed in vain the genius which had hitherto proved so wonderful. His bravest generals Ney, Murat, Augereau, McDonald deployed in vain their forces; the three days battle of Leipzig was the grave of the French empire. After a terrible loss Napoleon abandoned the city on the morning of the 19th of October. The premature destruction of the Elster bridge gave twelve thousand able-bodied warriors into the hands of the victors, to say nothing of the great number of sick and wounded who died for lack of care and in indescribable suffering. Pursued by the allies, the French hastened by forced marches to the Rhine; their way was blocked by the Bavarians and Austrians, but the dying lion in the battle

*Oct. 30, 31.* of Hanau, once more displayed his might, and in a brilliant victory opened for his army the way to the river. Then followed, in quick succession, the dissolution of the kingdom of Westphalia, the return of the Elector of Hesse and of the Dukes of Brunswick and Oldenburg to their states, the imprisonment of the king of Saxony, and the abolition of the Rhine Confederation. Dalberg gave up his grand duchy. Frankfort and Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt made treaties with Austria and turned their troops over to the allies. Only in Hamburg were the French able to hold out. There they remained till May 1814, exacting from the city the most oppressive contributions. The king of Denmark was punished for his attachment to Napoleon with the loss of Norway, which, in the treaty of Kiel, was given over to

*Jan. 14, 1814.* Sweden. The like happened in Italy. The Viceroy Eugene, after a brave struggle, abandoned the regions of the Po to the Austrians and joined his father-in-law in Bavaria. The Grand Duke Ferdinand returned to Tuscany, and the sorely tried Pope Pius VII received back the states of the Church. Naples alone remained for a while in the hands of Murat, who having quarreled with Napoleon, had allied himself to Austria.

§ 531. The allied monarchs, with their ministers and generals, held a council at Frankfort, at which they appointed Stein provincial chief of the conquered lands, and



GEBHARD LEBRECHT VON BLÜCHER.

offered the French emperor peace if he would be satisfied with the Rhine as the French frontier. But they were soon convinced by the preparations and conscriptions of Napoleon that he was determined to try the fortune of war once more. They therefore

**Jan. 1, 1814.** crossed the Rhine. On New Year's night Blücher, with his talented chief of staff, Gneisenau, crossed the river with the Silesian army at various points between Mannheim and Coblentz, while Schwartzenberg with the main army marched into



THE ALLIED FORCES ON THE ROAD TO PARIS.

southeast France through Switzerland. A second Prussian army under Bülow delivered Holland meanwhile and restored the hereditary Stadtholder. The armies of Blücher and Schwartzenberg united in Champagne and won the battle of La Rothière, but

**Feb. 1,** the difficulty of supporting the two armies compelled their separation,  
**1814.** Schwartzenberg moving along the Seine and Blücher along the Marne.

Napoleon was thus enabled to defeat the army of Blücher and to force his retreat; then throwing himself suddenly upon the main army he defeated it and drove it back.

**Feb. 10-18.** The allies now sued for peace, and if Napoleon had been satisfied to surrender the conquered lands, he might easily have retained the French throne. But his demands increased with his good fortune; he hindered negotiations with ambiguous and indefinite statements, until Blücher, his irreconcilable enemy, was able to attack

**Mar. 7-9.** him and put him once more at a disadvantage. The negotiations were now abandoned and the deposition of Napoleon determined upon. Another engage-

ment at Arcis convinced the emperor that his diminished and exhausted army was no longer equal to the stalwart ranks of the enemy, and this conviction made him irresolute. While the allies were marching upon Paris, and his presence at the capital was highly necessary he wasted his time in bold but useless marches. The heroic fight of

*March 25.* the national guard at Fère-Champenoise was the last splendid expression of the old French military spirit. A few days afterward the enemy stormed Montmartre. Joseph, to whom Napoleon had entrusted the defence of the capital, now



BLÜCHER'S CAVALRY BEFORE PARIS. (C. Delort.)

abdicated in favor of Mortier and Marmont, and retired with the empress and the regency to Blois. The two Marshals were soon compelled to yield to superior numbers

*March 31,* and the city was surrendered. The allies marched into Paris, and a  
*1814.* provisional government was established under the presidency of Talleyrand. This cunning diplomatist and master of intrigues now began to work in the interests of the ancient royal family, and sought, by urging the principle of legitimacy, to bring about the expulsion of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbons.\*

\* THE BOURBON FAMILY.  
THE GRANDSONS OF LOUIS XV.

Louis XVI—Marie Antoinette  
†1793 †1794

Louis XVIII  
Count De Provence  
†1824

Charles X.  
Count D'Artois  
†1836

Louis XVII  
Dauphin †1795

Marie Therese  
†1851  
Married  
Duc D'Angouleme

Duc D'Angouleme  
†1844

Duc De Barri  
Murdered  
13 Feb., 1820

Henri V  
Duc De Bordeaux  
Comte De Chambord  
born 1820  
†1883.



## 2. END OF THE NAPOLEONIC RULE AND THE RESTORATION.

§ 532. Meanwhile Napoleon remained in Fontainebleau with his guard and his adherents, whose number was increasing daily. But he wavered in his purposes, till the news of Marmont's defection determined him to abdicate in favor of his son ;

*April 4, 1814.* this conditional abdication was not accepted by the allied powers, and he could not continue the struggle because his nearest friends like Berthier, Ney and Oudinot had left him in order to worship the new sun. Napoleon thereupon subscribed to the unconditional act of abdication as framed by the allies. He received the Island of Elba as his property, with an annual income of two million francs and the right to surround himself with four hundred of his faithful guard. His consort, *Marie*



ENTRY OF LOUIS XVIII INTO PARIS.

Louise, received the Dukedom of Parma. On the twentieth of April Napoleon took leave of the grenadiers of his guard in the courtyard of Fontainebleau. On the fourth of May he landed at Elba, and soon afterward, to the rejoicing of the exhausted

*May 30, 1814.* nations, the first treaty of Paris was concluded, in which France received Louis XVIII as her king, with a new constitution and the frontiers of 1792. The foreign armies left the French territory, and the Congress of Vienna was convened to establish permanently the new order of things in Europe.

§ 533. At this Vienna Congress emperors and kings, princes and nobles, and the most famous statesmen of all nations were assembled to rejoice over their victory. The splendor and culture of all Europe was displayed in dazzling festivals, splendid balls and banquets ; and of festivities there was no end,

But to establish the new order was no easy task. Beneath all the dazzling festivities surged violent passions which threatened to destroy the work of peace. The restoration of the legitimate princes to their lost thrones, and the destruction of the republican constitutions, were two principles upon which all could easily unite. But the question of the division of the conquered lands, and of compensation for the allies, excited, envy, selfishness, and greed. Prussia demanded the annexation of Saxony, and Russia that of Poland; both demands were violently opposed. The discord appeared to threaten another war, so that the armies were kept upon a war-footing. These events and the happenings in France at the same time awakened in Napoleon fresh hopes. For the constitution given to the French people proved a poor defence against the reaction under Louis XVIII.



LOUIS XVIII. (*E. Ronjat.*)

The actions of the Bourbons soon showed that "they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing." The recollections of the Revolution and of the Empire were as far as possible effaced. The tri-color was exchanged for the Bourbon white. The old aristocrats treated the new nobility with scorn and arrogance, crowding them from the court circles, in which the haughty Count D'Artois, and the gloomy and vindictive, Duchess D' Angouleme (the daughter of Louis XVI), exercised the greatest influence. The guards were dismissed and their places filled by well-paid Swiss; the officers of the Grand Army were discharged with half pay; the Legion of Honor rendered contemptible, by the distribution of countless decorations among the unworthy. Even the compact with the banished Emperor was broken. The clergy and the emigrants, who enjoyed especially the favor of the King, thought only of getting back their lost estates, and tithes, and feudal rights.

§ 534. A mighty dissatisfaction took possession of the nation. The wish for a change seemed to spring up out of the ground, especially when a hundred thousand French soldiers returned home from their imprisonment or from foreign lands, and spread their enthusiasm for Napoleon into every corner of the country. Meanwhile Napoleon was kept informed by his adherents, especially by Fouché, Davoust, Maret, and the Duchess of St. Leu, of the mistakes of the Bourbons and of the feelings of the people. He determined to try his star once more. With a hundred men he landed



THE RETURN FROM ELBA. "SOLDIERS OF THE 5TH, DO YOU RECOGNIZE ME?" (C. Delort.)  
(pp. 627.)



**Mar. 1, 1815.** on the south coast of France. With cunning and rapidly-distributed proclamations he soon won all hearts. The tri-color appeared everywhere; the troops sent out to oppose him went over to him; the citizens of Grenoble battered down their gates as he approached, and Colonel Labedoyère, at the head of the garrison greeted him as chief. The enthusiasm was as great as in the days of his glorious victories. D'Artois rushed in vain to Lyons hoping to win the soldiers there. The cry "Vive l'Empereur" met him from all sides and when even Ney, who had once expected to bring the usurper in chains to Paris, went over to his former comrade, the Bourbons in mad confusion abandoned a second time their native land. Louis XVIII, with a few of his supporters, went to

**Mar. 20, 1815.** Ghent, while Napoleon took possession of the Tuileries and framed a new ministry. Thus began the dominion of the "Hundred Days." Clubs were re-established and the songs of the Revolution were heard again. But Napoleon had not laid aside his dislike of popular movements; he too had "learned nothing and forgotten nothing." The imperial throne with its splendor and its nobility he was determined to restore. But the people would have none of it. The new constitution,

**June 1.** which was solemnly sworn to at a great festival in the Champs de Mai, did not satisfy either their expectations or their demands.

§ 535. The Vienna Congress, startled by these events, agreed finally upon the following territorial divisions. Austria received back East Galatia, the Tyrol, and Salzburg, with the kingdom of Lombardy, Venice, Dalmatia, and the Illyrian provinces added as compensation for Belgium and the western territory. The kingdom of the Netherlands was made, by uniting all the provinces of the Netherlands, under William of Orange as sovereign king. The Italian princes received back their posses-



MEMBERS OF THE VIENNA CONGRESS OF 1815.

- |  |   |                                 |
|--|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. Wellington, (England).                | 17. Wacken,                                     | 21. Count Nesselrode, (Russia). |
| 2. Count Lobo, (Portugal).               | 18. Gentz, (General Secretary of the Congress). |                                 |
| 3. Saldana, (Portugal).                  | 19. William von Humboldt, (Prussia).            |                                 |
| 4. Count Löwenheim, (Sweden).            | 20. General Cathcart, (England).                |                                 |
| 5. Count Alexis de Noailles, (France).   | 21. Prince Krasnowsky, (Russia).                |                                 |
| 6. Count de Latour d'Auvergne, (France). | 22. Prince Talleyrand, (France).                |                                 |
| 7. Count Nesselrode, (Russia).           | 23. Count Stackelberg, (Russia).                |                                 |
| 8. Count Clancarty, (England).           |   |                                 |
| 9. Count Palmella, (Portugal).           |   |                                 |
| 10. Viscount Castlereagh, (England).     |   |                                 |
| 11. Duke Dalberg, (France).              |   |                                 |
| 12. Baron Wessenberg, (Austria).         |   |                                 |
| 13. Prince Rasumovsky, (Russia).         |   |                                 |
| 14. Lord St. Angelo, (Spain).            |   |                                 |
| 15. Gomez Labrador, (Spain).             |   |                                 |
| 16. Count Clancarty, (England).          |   |                                 |



THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.



sions; the republic of Genoa was given to Sardinia, and the states of the church were restored. In Spain and Portugal also the old dynasties returned. The dukedom of Warsaw was united to Russia as the kingdom of Poland, and received from Alexander a free constitution. Prussia received back the territory taken from her in the peace of Tilsit, together with Posen and Danzig, the half of the kingdom of Saxony, and important territories along the Rhine.

Austria and Russia appeared inclined, at the beginning, to negotiate with Napoleon and to leave him or his son in possession of the French throne, especially as he promised to observe the treaty of Paris, and not again to disturb the peace of Europe. But Talleyrand's activity and Murat's thoughtlessness determined otherwise. The usurper was proclaimed the "enemy of nations" and given over to public vengeance. Murat had joined the allies, and attacked the viceroy of Italy, but he felt that his conduct



TALLEYRAND. (*E. Ronjat.*)

was unnatural, and a correspondence was opened between Naples and Elba. Napoleon's landing and triumphal march were, for Murat, the signal for a new uprising. The Emperor warned him to be cautious, but without waiting for the development of affairs, he declared war upon Austria, and called the people of Italy to arms. But the battle of Tolentino decided against him. His army was dispersed, and he fled to Southern France, while the Austrians entered Naples, and restored the exiled Ferdinand. After the battle of Waterloo, Murat wandered along the French coasts, then

escaped to Corsica, and undertook an expedition into Calabria, to stir up the people against Ferdinand. But he was easily overcome, and paid for his rashness with his death. On the 13th of October this daring soldier, who had risen by valor and fortune, from his poverty as the son of an inn-keeper, to the ruler of the most beautiful portion of Italy, was shot to death at Pizzo.

§ 536. Napoleon's fate was decided earlier. The European powers armed a half million men to meet the returning exile. Napoleon marched the soldiers, who hurried to him from all sides, into the Netherlands, to meet the armies of Wellington and of Blücher. He encountered the Prussians at Ligny and forced them back, while Ney, at Quatrebras, withstood the forces of Wellington, consisting of English, Dutch, and Germans. At the battle of Waterloo, victory wavered long in the balance, and not until the Prussians, under Blücher, arrived, were the French finally defeated.





FLIGHT OF NAPOLEON AFTER WATERLOO. (A. G. Gow.)

Grouchy failed to cut off the Prussians, or to hold them back, so that the French were finally driven from the field. The old guard, under General Cambronne, fell fighting at Mont St. Jean, their brave commander answering the summons of the enemy with the immortal cry, "The guard dies, but it never surrenders." Soult led Napoleon, pale and confused, from the battlefield. He hastened to Paris, but his old energy and powers of invention seemed to have deserted him. The flight was universal: all the artillery fell into the hands of the enemy, and only a fourth part of the army escaped from the field. The battlefield of Waterloo had become the grave of the French Empire.

§ 537. The chambers in Paris, at the instigation of Fouché, now demanded the abdication of Napoleon. Reluctantly the broken conqueror yielded to their demand.



WELLINGTON.

He abdicated in favor of his son Napoleon II., and fled to Rochefort, intending to go to America. But the English were in possession of the harbor, and trusting to the magnanimity of the British nation, he sought the protection of the English ship *Bellerophon*. But the statesmen of England had no sympathy for the vanquished adventurer. They determined to send him, as a prisoner, to the island of St. Helena. On the 18th of

*Oct. 18, 1815.* October he arrived at the place of his exile, in the midst of the Pacific ocean. He lived there separated from his relatives, with a few faithful friends, until the 5th of May, 1821. The climate was unhealthy, and the strict supervision under which he was held, fretted away his strong spirit. A disease, inherited from his father, hastened his death. His ashes were brought

to Paris in 1842, and buried in great pomp, in the *Hôtel des Invalides*.

§ 538. After the abdication of Napoleon, Fouché conducted a provisional government. He agreed with Wellington and Blücher, that no one should be punished

*July 18, 1815.* for his past deeds or opinions, and then surrendered to them the capital. A few days later, the Bourbons returned to the Tuileries, under the protection of foreign bayonets. The people were quiet and unsympathetic. The armies were dismissed, the Chambers dissolved, and a proscription list published, which deprived some men of their offices, drove some into exile, and condemned others, like Marshal Ney, to death. The allied monarchs resided, for a while, in Paris, and assisted the Bourbons to establish the new order. Finally a second peace of Paris was agreed

*Nov. 20, 1815.* upon, in which the French frontiers of 1790 were restored, all the stolen treasures of art and science returned to their former owners, 150,000,000 dollars war indemnity paid over to the allies, and seventeen fortresses surrendered to the allied army. These fortresses were to be garrisoned by foreign troops, for at least three years. Labedoyere and Ney were condemned to be shot. This execution of the

*Dec. 7, 1815.* famous marshal, was looked upon as a violation of the agreement be-





ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON.

( pp. 633.)



tween Wellington and Fouché. Lavalette was also condemned to death, but rescued from prison by his faithful wife. The exiles consisted of the members of the Napoleonic family, the generals and statesmen who were with Napoleon at Waterloo, and finally all the regicides, *i. e.*, the members of the Convention, who voted for the death of Louis XVI. Fouché was included among these, and compelled to leave France. Carnot, Sieyès, and others did likewise. Berthier lost his mind, and threw himself from a balcony of the Castle at Bamberg.

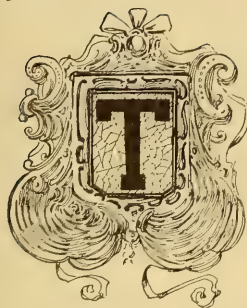




## E. EUROPE UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF THE CONSERVATIVE POLICY OF METTERNICH.

§ 539.

### I. THE HOLY ALLIANCE AND THE POSITION OF PARTIES.



THE Revolution and the military rule of Napoleon had visited European society, from its lowest to its highest forms, with the severest chastisement. Deeper reflection upon the progress of the Revolution, revealed the influence of a higher power, that brings to naught human pride, and punishes severely human wickedness. Religious feeling entered once again the hearts of men, so that piety and Christian faith were once more dominant in upper circles. The three allied monarchs, Alexander

of Russia, Frederick William III of Prussia, and Francis of Austria, under the influence of this feeling, established the HOLY ALLIANCE which was joined by all European sovereigns except the Pope and the King of England. The three rulers, without regard to the difference of their creeds, solemnly promised to live according to the words of holy writ, which commands men to love each other as brothers, to stand by each other in the bonds of a true and imperishable fraternity, to rule their subjects as loving parents, and to maintain religion, peace, and justice. But this ideally beautiful alliance soon became the instrument of a state-craft, which, under pretence of religion, attempted to exalt the absolute sovereignty of the prince and of the government, and to eradicate utterly the doctrine of popular sovereignty and the democratic and constitutional institutions depending upon it. This prostitution of Christianity to the purposes of reaction brought upon the Holy Alliance the reproach of hypocrisy and the hatred of the nations.

§ 540. Princes and governments strove in general for absolute monarchy and unlimited power. The people on the other hand were eager for constitutional forms. In England, where constitutional monarchy had been developed, the representatives of the people had control of the appropriations, had a share in the formation of the laws, and the right to inquire into the administration of the state. Representative government guarantees alike the dignity of the monarch, and the freedom and the rights of the people, and is therefore the best arrangement for a civilized state. Hence the European nations strove for the establishment, or for the extension of these constitutional forms of state, and public life was almost exclusively directed to constitutional systems and political progress. This led to the formation of two powerful parties of which the one (differently designated "aristocratic," "conservative" or "servile"), was determined to concede to the people the least possible, while the other ("democratic," "liberal," or "radical") sought to obtain for them the largest possible measure of right. The former opposed vigorously the introduction of constitutiona



MALTREATMENT OF THE BODY OF MARSHAL BRUNE. (*C. Delort.*)

forms or (where they had been introduced) sought to strip them of democratic elements. The latter aimed to establish and to develop constitutional life, to increase the rights of the people, and to organize a parliamentary system. The governments were as a rule in the hands of conservatives; and the liberals were in opposition. Of the five great European powers, England and France only possessed a constitutional system. Russia, Austria, and Prussia, on the other hand, held fast to the absolute monarchy,—the two latter however convening the notables of the land for particular and provincial affairs. In Germany, Italy, and the Spanish Peninsula, modern history is concerned chiefly with these constitutional struggles, in which sometimes the one and sometimes the other political principle prevails.

## 2. FRANCE.

§ 541. The French kingdom shaken to its foundations by the events of the Revolution, experienced under the restoration a remarkable change of thought and feeling. The party of extreme Royalists (ultras, or as they were designated by their



opponents "white Jacobins") became so powerful that the king found it difficult to maintain the constitutional guarantees. Instead of the free thinking antipathy of former days, the church looked with delight upon a religious fanaticism that passed all bounds. This union of intense absolutism and religious zeal provoked cruelties that

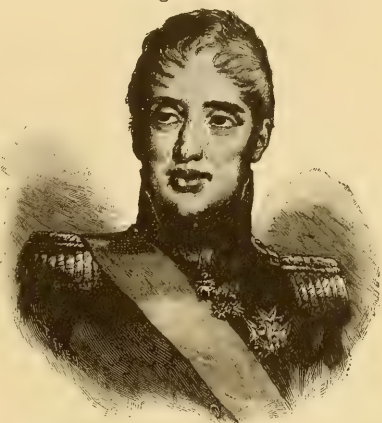
**Sept. 1815.** surpassed even the bloodiest events of the revolutionary era. At Marseilles, Toulon, Nîmes, Toulouse, and elsewhere, furious and fanatical mobs fell upon the Protestants, Bonapartists and Republicans and murdered them by hundreds. In Avignon they shot down Marshal Brune and threw his body into the Rhone. In Toulouse when General Ramel sought to check the outrages of the Royalists he was sacrificed to the popular rage. Murder, plunder, and conflagration were the order of the day. The murder of the Duke De Berri, the King's nephew, upon whom the hopes of the Bourbons rested, only fur-

**Feb. 13, 1820.** thered the efforts of the party of reaction at the head of which stood the Count D'Artois and the Duchess D'Angouleme. The king was compelled to dismiss the moderate ministry of Decazes, and to consent to a limitation of personal liberty, freedom of the press, and the right of suffrage. The new ministry carried their royalistic zeal to the extreme. The chamber expelled the liberal deputy

**1823.** Manuel for an expression of republicanism, and the army, commanded by the Duke D'Angouleme, crossed the Pyrenees, at the instance of the Holy Alliance, to restore absolute monarchy in Spain.

§ 542. On the 16th of Sept. 1824, Louis XVIII. closed his life of trial and of change. Bitter experiences had taught him gentleness and moderation; and the unbridled vehemence of the members of his family filled the heart of the dying monarch with gloomy forebodings of the future. His brother Count D'Artois became king of France.

**May 29, 1825.** By his solemn coronation in Rheims, Charles X. appeared to indicate that he intended to govern in the sense of the ancient "Most christian" kings. Accordingly he opened his heart to the nobility and to the clergy, giving out as a watchword "The throne and the altar." The emigrants received, as compensation for their losses during the Revolution, a thousand million francs. A series of laws in the interest of the Church and the Christian religion, attested the purpose of the king to create a mighty breakwater against revolutionary ideas, by the regeneration of France. This regeneration was to be accomplished by giving back to the clergy their former position of authority, by founding rich bishopates, by furthering the religious orders, and by clothing ecclesiastical ceremonies with all the new Roman pomp. The Jesuits, who had been reorganized by the Pope, returned to France, albeit secretly. They established unions and sought to get the education of the youth into their power. But the king, through these measures, strengthened the liberal opposition, as all the men of philo-



CHARLES X. (*Charles Duchesne.*)

sophical education, all the friends of light and of Science, turned away from a government that showed such favor to the men of darkness. While the blinded monarch believed that he could imprison the minds of the people by anachronistic pilgrimages or by intolerant laws and limitations, the new generation was listening eagerly to the bold words and teachings of the enlightened professors of the University of Paris (Guizot, Villemain, Royer-Collard), or reading the bold declarations of the libel press (The Globe, The National, The Constitutional), or rejoicing in Béranger's "Songs of Freedom" or Courier's "Satires." The writings of Voltaire and of the Encyclopædists were once more widely circulated, and the older citizens read with enthusiasm the numerous histories and memoirs of the Revolution and the Napoleonic Empire (Thiers, Mignet).

### 3.—THE CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLES IN THE SPANISH PENINSULA AND IN ITALY.

§ 543. In Spain and in Italy the new political ideas had not penetrated to the people, for these were under the domination of the Priests. They lived only in the minds of the educated; and when it became dangerous to acknowledge them they were propagated in secret societies,—by the FREE MASONS in Spain and in Portugal, and by the CARBONARI in Italy. Diminution of the power of the priests, introduction of political freedom, the education of the people, and the development of patriotism, were the chief purposes of these societies. Their power was first revealed in Spain. Ferdinand VII. a treacherous, suspicious man, and a master of dissimulation, was no

*May 10, 1814.* sooner restored, than he overthrew the parliamentary constitution in Spain and brought back the absolute monarchy with all its mischief. Nobility and clergy were once more exempted from taxation, the cloisters, the Jesuits, and the Inquisition reappeared. A dreadful persecution assailed all the adherents of France, all who had held any office under Joseph or rendered him any service whatsoever, and even the chiefs and adherents of the Cortes, and the leaders of the bands who had poured out their heart's blood for king and country, and now claimed as a reward civil freedom and a share in the management of the State. Many of these heroes died upon the scaffold; others wandered abroad as exiles and fugitives. Those who remained at home locked up their opinions and their dissatisfaction in their silent hearts. A number of court-favorites (Camarilla) consisting of fanatical priests, selfish court-flatterers, and intriguing women captured the confidence of Ferdinand, and urged him to a cruel persecution of all liberals. The administration of the State and of justice became most wretched. The royal treasury, in spite of the most oppressive taxation, was exhausted. The movement of trade and of industry was arrested. The South and Central American colonies declared and conquered their independence and established a number of republics. The war of Independence in South America is especially connected with the name of the Creole Bolivar, who died in 1830.

§ 544. On New Year's Day 1820, certain regiments, collected in Cadiz and *Jan. 1, 1820.* destined for South America, broke out in mutiny. Colonel Riego was the soul of this insurrection, but the conduct of it was intrusted to Quiroga, who had just been released from prison. It soon spread over all Spain. The constitution of the year 1812 was demanded everywhere, and the king was compelled to yield, to convene the Cortes, and to swear fidelity to the constitution. This victory of the Spanish Democrats inflamed the zeal of their comrades in Portugal and in Italy. Popular up-

risings took place in Lisbon and Oporto, and the people demanded the removal of Lord Beresford (who governed the land in the name of the king yet absent in Brazil), and also the convening of the Cortes, and the introduction of a constitution like that newly

*Jan. 26, 1821.* given to the Spaniards. John VI. returned to Lisbon, and swore to support the new constitution for Portugal and Brazil. In Naples the Carbonari excited a military insurrection, which progressed so rapidly that king Ferdinand was

*July 13, 1820.* compelled to concede to the Neapolitans the Spanish constitution. William Pepe and Carrascosa, the chiefs of the insurrection, marched into Naples in triumph at the head of the rebellious troops and their allies, the Carbonari. In Piedmont also there was a revolutionary uprising against the priesthood, the aristocracy,

*March 1821.* and the monarchy. In consequence of which Victor Emmanuel abdicated in favor of his brother Charles Felix, and the Spanish constitution was introduced into the kingdom of Sardinia.

§ 545. The heads of the Holy Alliance, alarmed at this new revolutionary spirit, at the suggestion of Metternich, determined to put down the liberal movements. At

*Jan. 1821.* the Congress of Laibach, at which King Ferdinand of Naples was present as a guest of the other monarchs, it was determined to overthrow by force the constitution of his kingdom, and Ferdinand consented. An Austrian army invaded the

*March 1821.* land; the troops of Pepe and Carrascosa were soon overpowered, whereupon the king abolished the constitution. The priesthood and the absolute monarchy now united, by means of mercenaries and paid police, to destroy every movement toward freedom and progress. This turn of affairs in Naples determined the fate of the constitution of Piedmont. Santa Rosa at the head of his enthusiastic liberals resisted, not ingloriously, at Novara, but abandoned by their secret patron, the Prince of Carignano, their strength was soon broken. Turin and Alessandria were taken by the Austrians, and absolute monarchy, in its strictest form, was restored in the kingdom of Sardinia. Upper Italy was overwhelmed by the reaction, and many a

*April 1821.* patriotic man like Pallavicino-Trivulzio of Milan and Silvio Pellico the poet, was doomed to long incarceration as prisoner of state.

§ 546. The Spanish Cortes perished quite as ingloriously. For the liberals abused their victory, limited the royal authority most unwisely, and so assailed the monasteries and the privileged class, that they excited the Priests and the adherents of absolute monarchy to a bloody struggle. Civil war threatened to destroy the

*Oct. 1822.* unhappy people. Thereupon the Holy Alliance required the Cortes to alter their constitution, and to concede to the king a larger authority. The Democratic party defiantly refused. Whereupon a French army crossed the Pyrenees. In vain the Cortes called the people to arms. Constitutional liberty had no meaning for masses led by Priests and Monks, and the new system was opposed to their habits and their feelings. The war of the people, the famous old *Guerilla*, in which the Cortes

*Feb. 1823.* trusted, did not take place. The mob and the Camarilla greeted the French as the saviours of the country from the hateful tyranny of the Free Masons. A few leaders like Mina in Barcelona, and Quiroga in Leon resisted the foreign army courageously, but the soldiers showed little enthusiasm, and sought safety in surrender. The French entered Madrid victoriously and, as the Cortes, with the king, had fled to the south, they proclaimed a regency. Cadiz was the last refuge of the friends of the constitution: the French now approached this fortified city. But the



members of the Cortes, instead of being buried under its ruins (as they had declared), made a treaty with the besiegers; agreeing to dissolve and to set the king at liberty.

*Aug. 15, 1823.* Ferdinand VII. was once more in power, by the help of foreign bayonets; the constitution was annulled, and the apostolic party expended its rage upon their former enemies. Riego and many of his companions died by the hand of the executioner; thousands wandered without bread and home as exiles in strange lands; a number quite as large expiated their love of liberty in damp prison cells, and died as victims of their effort to take from the people the institutions to which they had been habituated by three centuries of despotism.



THE FRENCH AT CADIZ. (*Paul Delaroche.*)

§ 547. This wretched issue of the Spanish constitution, incited the Queen of Portugal and her second son Dom Miguel to a similar enterprise. They induced the weak king John VI. to abolish the Cortes-constitution and to permit the persecution of the constitutionalists and the Free Masons. Soon afterwards Dom Miguel rebelled

*April 1824.* against his own father so as to obtain a regentship, but failing was  
*1826.* banished the country. John VI. died two years afterward. His oldest

son Dom Pedro who, as constitutional emperor of Brazil, could not be at the same time king of Portugal, transferred the government of his mother-country to his daughter Donna Maria da Gloria, and gave the Portuguese a liberal constitution. To be sure

Dom Miguel, returning from exile, was soon able, with the help of the apostolic party, *June, 1828.* to overthrow this constitution. He deprived his niece of her right to the throne, proclaimed himself absolute monarch, and proceeded furiously with banishment, imprisonment, and death against the friends and adherents of the constitutional system. But his government was of short duration. Dom Pedro gave the Brazilian crown to his son, landed in Portugal and, after two years of war, compelled his tyrannical brother to renounce the throne and to go into exile. Dom Pedro there-  
*Sept. 24, 1834.* upon re-established the Cortes-constitution, but unfortunately he died soon after. And under the government of his daughter Donna Maria it underwent many changes and assaults.

§ 548. England emerged from the long struggle with France victorious and powerful. She had destroyed the fleets of other nations, and secured to herself the supremacy of the ocean. She had extended her possessions in the West Indies, brought Canada to prosperity, established colonies in Western and Southern Africa and created an empire in India, greater than the kingdom at home, and destined to be a source of untold wealth. Distant islands, which had been discovered by daring navigators like Cook, yielded obedience, while Gibraltar and Malta confirmed English authority in the Mediterranean. The Ionian islands, and the free navigation of the Dardanelles, gave the English flag almost control of the Levant. The constitution of England awakened the envy of other nations, so carefully did it define the rights of the people and of the crown, and so firmly did it secure freedom of speech and



GEORGE IV.

of the press. Yet the English monarchy was not without great difficulties. In the first place wealth was distributed very unequally. The wars by sea and by land had been enormously expensive, the national debt had increased so greatly that the annual interest was \$150,000,000. The expenses of the court were extravagant, salaries of officials were very large, appropriations increased so rapidly that the required means could be obtained only by taxing the necessities of life. Houses and lands, incomes, and commodities to the utmost. This brought about the destruction of the small land-owner and the small trader. Estates were accumulated in the hands of a few, rents were raised to the point of oppression, and the corn-law prevented the import of foreign food-stuffs. Manufactures likewise came into the hands of a few rich capitalists, and the number of artisans who lived from hand to mouth increased to an alarming extent. The poor tax, and the subsidies of the

government, did but little to diminish the misery. Insurrections were the natural consequence, but the working classes received no benefit. On the contrary, they were dispersed easily by military power. The bloody suppression of the uprising

**1819.** at Manchester by the government provoked great bitterness, and the lower classes began to agitate for political power. They demanded universal suffrage, annual parliaments, and a secret ballot. They stated their principles in the people's charter, from which they were called Chartists. They failed of their immediate aim, but their agitation had great influence upon the repeal of the corn-laws in 1842.

§ 549. In the second place, the political condition of England after the Napoleonic

**George IV.** wars was one of apathy. George IV. had no sympathy with the people and trusted entirely to the Tories. The people repaid his indifference

**1820-1830.**

**1820.**

with hate, especially when he sought a divorce from his wife Caro-

line of Brunswick. Castlereagh, the boon companion of George, and the supporter of a false and faithless system of politics, finally committed suicide. This greatly affected the

**1822.**

King and drove him to retirement. Meanwhile, Canning, a really able statesman, lifted England once more to great renown. The Princess Charlotte, the brilliant and amiable daughter of George IV. died without children. He was therefore succeeded by his

**William IV.,** brother Wil-

**1830-1837.**

liam IV., a simple, straightforward sailor. With him the Whigs came into power;

their leaders were John Russell, Brougham and Palmerston. The most important polit-

**1831.**

ical measure of this period was the reform of the Parliament, by means of which the rotten boroughs were destroyed, the parliamentary districts rearranged according to population, and the right of suffrage made dependent upon a definite income. This was a triumph of the middle classes over the aristocracy. It was soon followed by

**1833,**

the abolition of slavery in the colonies for which Wilberforce, Buxton and other philanthropists had labored for many years. The slaves in the colonies were given their freedom and the owners were granted compensation. The English thereupon sought to persuade other nations to do likewise, and especially to put an end to

**Victoria, 1837.** the slave trade. Upon the death of William IV., Victoria, his niece



WILLIAM IV.



obtained the crown of England. She was married on the 10th of February, 1840 to Prince Albert of Coburg. The first great measure of her reign was the repeal of the corn-laws, after a violent agitation, of which Richard Cobden was



QUEEN VICTORIA.

the leader. By a gradual process extending from 1846 to 1849 these laws, which laid enormous duties upon foreign breadstuffs, were gradually repealed, and in 1869

they were finally removed. In a short time free trade, except in wines, spirits, and tobacco, became the settled policy of England. Although Australia, Canada, and other colonies are allowed to impose duty on imports from the mother country.

§ 550. In the third place, Ireland is the wounded member in the English body politic. The two peoples, unlike in nature, religion, and institutions have never formed one nation, and the old feuds have been kept alive by the landlords, and by the clergy. Ireland is divided into numberless small farms, thousands of them not averaging five acres apiece. The peasants who work these farms are in many cases compelled to pay extravagant rents to their landlords, many of whom they have never seen. On the other hand the English clergymen were in possession of all the revenues of the Irish church, while the Catholic clergy must be supported by the people living in poverty, although the great majority of the Irish people are Catholic.

Various uprisings were put down, but the people continued to rebel. Finally the emancipa-

1829. tion act was

passed which admitted Catholics to the English Parliament. Under this act Daniel O'Connell with forty followers entered Parliament and began to agitate for the repeal of the union, or the separation of Ireland from England. The failure of the potato crop, the outbreak of pestilence and of famine demanded immediate relief and O'Connell found it easy to keep the land in an uproar and to unite all his countrymen in organizations



SIR ROBERT PEELE.

to promote repeal. The Catholic clergy supported him and his word became the law of Ireland. He demanded the abolition of the Church tithes, and when Parliament refused, the people would not pay them. The English resorted to violence and were opposed with violence. Mobs of armed men marched through the

1833.

land to plunder and to kill. A coercion bill was passed, and martial law proclaimed. The church bill for Ireland, with appropriation clauses, was introduced and became a law. This abolished or diminished the tithes, and appropriated a part of the Church revenues for public instruction, but the High Church party and the Tories fought desperately to mutilate the bill and to a great extent succeeded. The High Churchmen in England were supported by the Orangemen of northern Ireland. Re-

ligious and national hate was kept alive, and many Irishmen left their native country and sought new homes in North America.

## 5. GERMANY.

§ 551. Germany departed from the Congress of Vienna weaker and less united than ever. The number of princedoms was, it is true, diminished by more than a hundred, but thirty-eight principalities, which were united in the German union, acquired sovereign authority in their domestic affairs. In place of the former diet there was created a Congress of the Union, consisting of ambassadors from the different governments, who met at Frankfort, under the presidency of Austria. But this Congress was without independence, and the German union was an impotent member of the European family of nations, dependent altogether upon the two great powers, Austria and Prussia. And to make matters worse, foreign kingdoms sent ambassadors to Frankfort; Denmark, because of Holstein, and the Netherlands, because of Luxemburg. Yet the people were not represented at all, although the thirteenth article of the "Act of Union" contained a vague clause about constitutional government, which corresponded but little to the expectations of the people. And when Prussia hesitated to grant a constitution, and instead of convening a Parliament, convened only provincial councils with secret sessions, the bitterness of the people became very great. Austria was governed absolutely, and held apart from Germany. Prussia also was under the influence of Metternich, and allowed herself to be used to carry out his policy. The constitutions, which had been adopted in the smaller states, were soon abandoned, and the customs barriers between the different lands made commerce difficult and almost impossible.



DANIEL O'CONNELL.

§ 552. The Liberals who sought for a progressive development of the states, and were full of the hope of German unity, began now to increase. The German youth, discontented with the present, longed for the return of the Mediæval Empire. They established Fraternities at the Universities, and began to proclaim their love of the old-new Fatherland. The spirit made itself felt, especially at the festival of the Wartburg. A number of professors and students of the University of Jena met at the *Oct. 18, 1817*. Wartburg, near Eisenach, to celebrate the 300th anniversary of the Reformation. They made fiery speeches and sang enthusiastic songs, after which they made a bonfire of emblems and books that seemed, in their eyes, to belong to a past age. This festival received its importance, however, from the bloody deed of one *March 23, 1840*. of its members, Carl Sand, who murdered the poet Kotzebue. The latter was accused of betraying his fatherland, but his murder gave occasion to the



*Sept., 1819.* Carlsbad decrees, which limited the freedom of the Press, established a central commission for the discovery of political criminals, placed the Universities under strict supervision, and required all the governments of Germany to carry out the decision of the Congress of the Union. The democratic spirit of South Germany

*May 15, 1820.* was at the same time suppressed by the decrees of Vienna. Prussia, for a long time the hope and confidence of all German patriots, marched at the head of this reaction. Men like Arndt and Jahn were accused of sedition, deprived of their offices, and watched constantly by the police. The unity of Germany seemed to vanish like a dream. To speak of it even was a crime. Every single state was ruled without regard to the common interests, and although many improvements were made in the Church, and school, and state, the political authority and honor of Germany seemed to have no value in the eyes of German princes.

## 6. THE STRUGGLE FOR GREEK INDEPENDENCE.

§ 553. But suddenly the news flashed through Europe, that the Greeks had risen in arms against the Turks. Like a breath from a nobler world, it quickened the



ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS. (*Modern.*)

lives of the people held fast by the chains of the Holy Alliance and the policy of Metternich. This movement of the Greeks was headed by Alexander Ypsilanti, a Moldavian nobleman, in the Russian military service. He was helped by a widely ramified society, the secret purpose of which was the separation of Greece from Tur-

*March, 1821.* key. In a short time, Morea (Peloponnesus), Livadia (Hellas), Thessaly, and the Greek islands were in arms. But the expected help of Russia failed them. The Czar Alexander was restrained by Metternich, who compared the uprising of the Greeks with the democratic movements in Italy and in Spain. The Turks foamed with rage, and took a bloody revenge. The patriarch of Constantinople, the head of the Greek Church, was torn from the altar by angry Mohammedans, and hung up at the main door of his church. A like fate befell the Bishops of Ephesus and Nicomedia. Many old Greek inhabitants of Constantinople died a violent death, or were driven to beg their bread in foreign lands. The Holy band of Greeks, under

*June 19, 1821.* Ypsilanti's lead, was finally destroyed, in the desperate battle of Dragatschan. Ypsilanti fled to Austria, where he languished for many years in prison.

§ 554. A fearful national war now broke out in all parts of Greece. In the Morea the wild Mainotes rose in rebellion. These were followed by other inhabitants of the Pelopónnesus, under Demetrius Ypsilanti, the brother of Alexander. The Greeks in Livadia, and in the island, fought with the courage of their ancestors. The European people looked with sympathy upon the glorious contest, sent them money and men, and did their utmost to sustain their leaders, and to maintain the republic

that they had established. While the Princes of the Holy Alliance abandoned the Christian people to the blows of infidels, crowds of sympathizers were moving toward the ancient scenes of glory. The English poet Byron dedicated

his talent, his fortune, his energy, and his life, to the cause of Greece, and the rich Genevan Eynard supported them with enormous sums of money. In spite of the discord and selfishness of the Greek leaders, the insurgents were victorious, until the year 1825. In that year Turkey acquired a powerful support in Mehemet Ali, the Pasha of Egypt, who had overcome the Mamelukes, and introduced into Egypt western institutions. The Pasha sent his son Ibrahim, with a considerable army, into the Pelopónnesus. The discordant Greek bands were unable to withstand him; one city after another fell into his hands. Ibrahim and his inhuman troops marched over corpses and ruins to their victory. The coasts of Greece were cruelly devastated, while the cabinets of Europe sought in vain



MEHEMET ALI PASHA. (Couder.)

*April 22, 1826.* to bring the war to an end. But not until the fall of Missolonghi was there a change in the situation. The distressed city, unable to hold out longer, made a desperate attempt to break through the ranks of the besiegers. A third part of the inhabitants were slain, the city was burned to the ground, and all who had remained in it were buried beneath the ruins. A cry of horror went through all Europe, and the governments were driven to activity by the angry curses of their outraged peoples.

§ 555. The Czar Alexander had just died, and his brother Nicholas was governing with a strong hand. In England the high-minded Canning was then in the splendor of his youth, and had not forgotten his early enthusiasm for Greek independence. In France also the government was obliged to listen to the voice of

friends of Greece, especially when the bloody abolition of the Janissaries, in which  
**June, 1826.** 15,000 Mohammedans lost their lives, revealed the barbarism and inhumanity of the Turkish empire. At Canning's instance, a treaty was made between Russia, England, and France, in which the three powers pledged themselves to compel the emancipation of the Greeks. A united fleet appeared at once in the Archipelago, and summoned Ibrahim to evacuate the peninsula. When he refused,

**Oct. 20, 1827.** the Turkish-Egyptian fleet was annihilated in the naval battle of Navar-

ino. But the allies did not know their own minds, and Canning died in the crisis of affairs. The English looked with more favor upon Turkey, and the Sultan now resolved not to let the Greeks go, and behaved so defiantly to Russia, that the latter

**1828.** declared war. This

excited once more the hopes of the Greeks. While the armies of the Ottoman Turks were marching to the lands of the Danube, Ibrahim was compelled, by the French fleet, to abandon Morea. Capo D'Istria of Korfu was now made president of the Greek republic, and the Russians soon compelled the Turks to the

**Sept. 14, 1829.** peace of Adrianople, in which the independence of Greece was acknowledged. But a long time elapsed before the frontiers could be established, and the Greek fleet was destroyed to keep it out of the enemies' hands. Finally, at a Congress in

**May, 1832.** London, the European

powers established the kingdom of Greece, making Otto I. of Bavaria the king.

## 7. THE NEW ROMANTIC LITERATURE AND ART.

### a. Germany.

§ 556. The creators and chief pillars of romantic literature and art were

**A. W. Schlegel,** Augustus and Friedrich Schlegel, and the two poets, Novalis and Tieck. They directed their attention to the forgotten products of

**1767-1845.** romantic literature and, following the example of Herder, collected and elaborated the legends and the songs of the old German time.

**F. Schlegel,** They introduced the romantic poetry of the Spaniards and of the

**1772-1829.** Italians into Germany by skillful translations, and brought the myth-

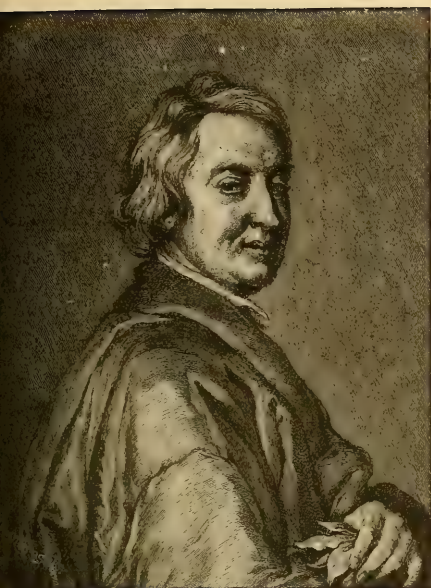
**Novalis,** ology and poetry of the Orient and of Scandinavia into the circle of

**Tieck, 1773-1853.** their studies. Dante, Shakespeare, Cervantes were splendidly translated. The Schlegel brothers distinguished themselves by their critical writings, their translations

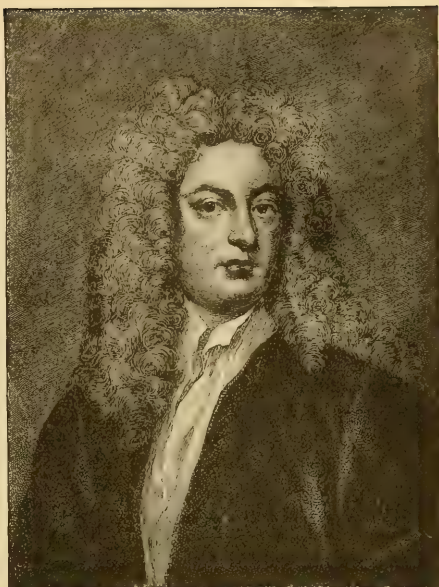


NICHOLAS I.

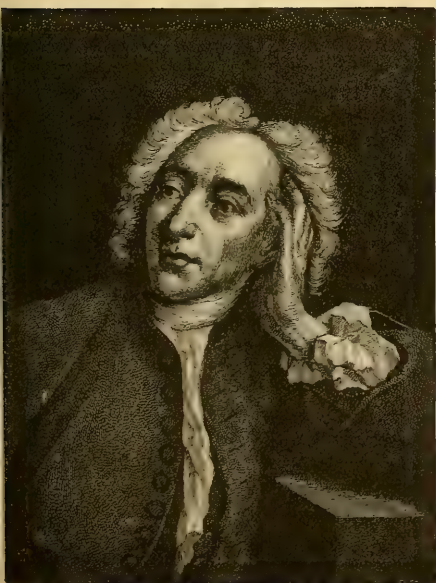




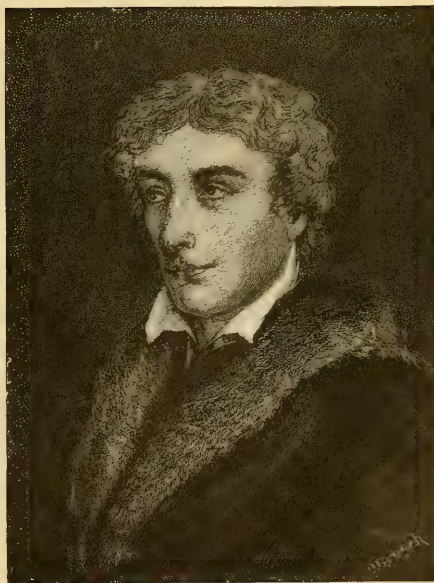
JOHN DRYDEN. 1631-1701.



JOSEPH ADDISON. 1672-1719



ALEXANDER POPE. 1688-1744.



JOHN KEATS. 1796-1821.

and their knowledge of the history of literature. Tieck acquired renown for his fables and romances. Novalis, by his melancholy poems and his

*Fouqué*, fragmentary romances.

**1777-1843.** Fouqué contributed his wonderful story of Undine, while Brentano collected and modernized

*Rückert*, old German ballads.

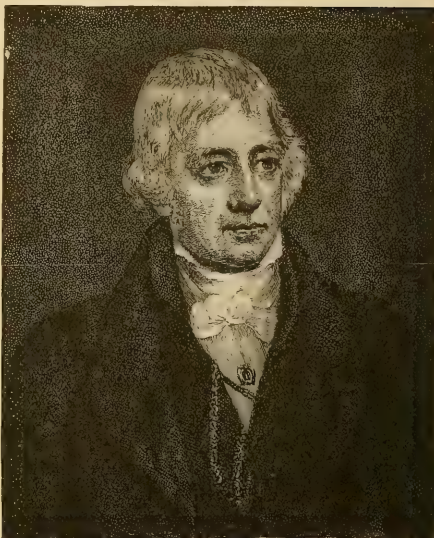
**1788-1866.** Rückert translated and imitated the poems of the

*J. Grimm*, *Orient*; the brothers

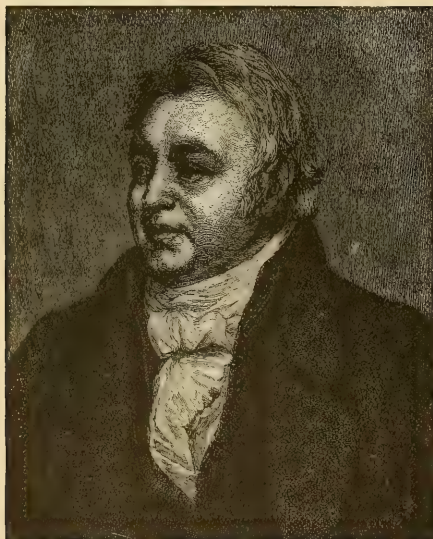
**1785-1863.** Grimm helped on the

*W. Grimm*, movement by their in-

**1786-1859.** vestigations into the Old German language and literature and by their search for popular fables and proverbs. The great historian Raumer followed, with the *History of the Hohenstauffens*. Many writers of the Romantic school joined the Catholic Church, which created great offense among the Protestants.



SIR WALTER SCOTT. 1771-1832.



SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE. 1772-1834.

*Uhland*, Uhland and Arndt how-

**1786-1862.** ever did not join the movement, but followed in the path of Schiller. The party of the Liberals and the great mass of the German people were devoted rather to

*Jean Paul* these than to the others.

**1763-1825.** Jean Paul Friedrich Richter stands quite apart from both these schools as the author of the humorous romance, and the painter of the domestic life of Germany, full of wild fancy, of delicate humour, of subtlety, and of mysterious suggestion.

*b.* The writers of Italy undertook the lofty work of lifting their nation from the degradation of cen-

*Alfieri*, turies. Alfieri, in his dramas, sought to create enthusiasm for free-

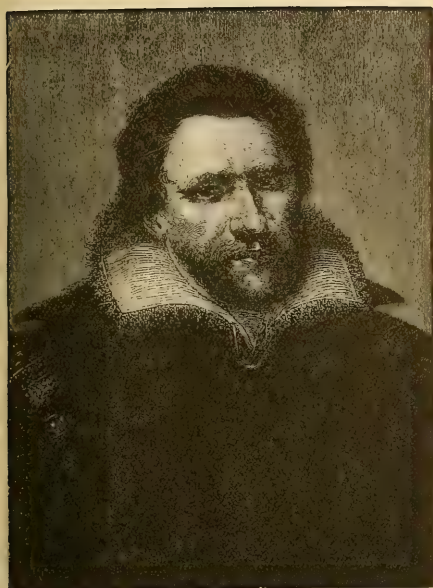
*Foscolo*, dom and fatherland.

**1772-1827.** Foscolo and Leopardi

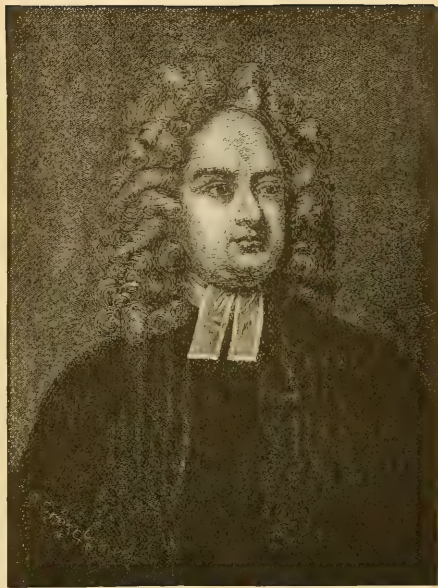
*Leopardi*, broke forth in melan-

**1798-1837.**

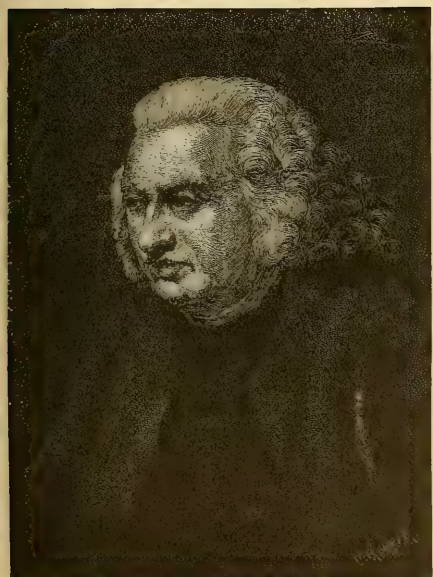




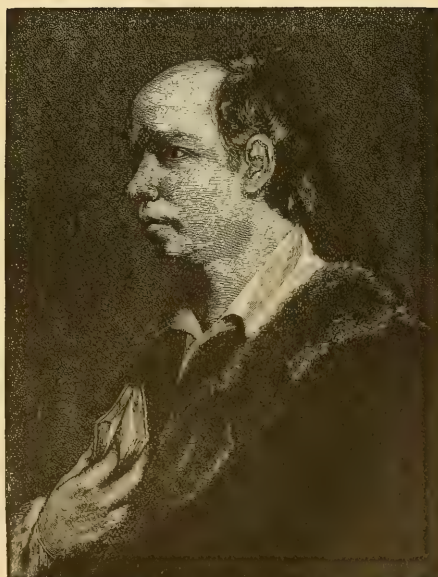
BEN JONSON. 1574-1637.



JONATHAN SWIFT. 1667-1745.



SAMUEL JOHNSON. 1709-1784.



OLIVER GOLDSMITH. 1728-1774.



choly strains to bewail the wretched

*Pellico*,      ness of their country.

**1789-1854.** Silvio Pellico and others sought to arouse their compatriots by pictures of a noble past; and

*Manzoni*,      Manzoni, the most re-

**1785-1833.** nowned poet of recent Italy, followed the same direction.

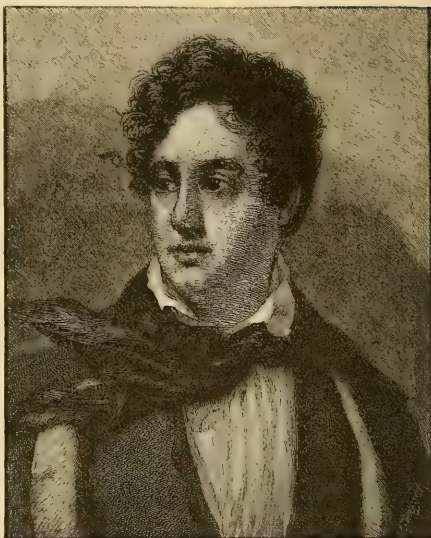
In Scotland and England, ballads and border tales were collected, and the past exerted a powerful influence upon many men of great genius. The

*Burns*,      greatest of these was

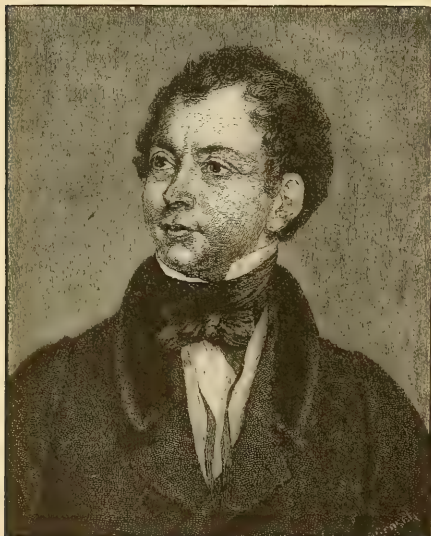
**1759-1796.** Robert Burns, by birth a peasant, whose poems are full of warmth, strength, sensibility, and

*Scott*,      vivid power. Walter

**1771-1832.** Scott began his remarkable career by collecting ballads, continued it with epic narrative, and made himself famous for all time, by his romances, in which he pictured the manners, customs, landscapes



LORD GEORGE GORDON BYRON. 1728-1824.



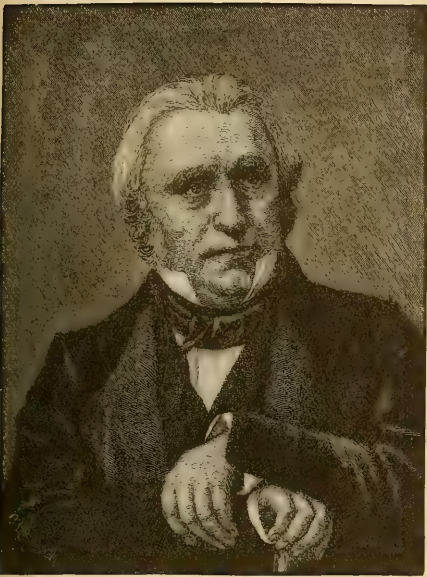
THOMAS MOORE. 1780-1852.

and character of his own country and of other lands, with unapproachable skill.

In England, the Lake school of *Wordsworth*, Wordsworth, Southey, **1770-1850.** and Coleridge, created *Coleridge*, a new development in **1772-1834.** the poetry of nature.

Rogers wrote his "Pleasures of Memory," and Campbell his "Pleasures of Hope." These were easily

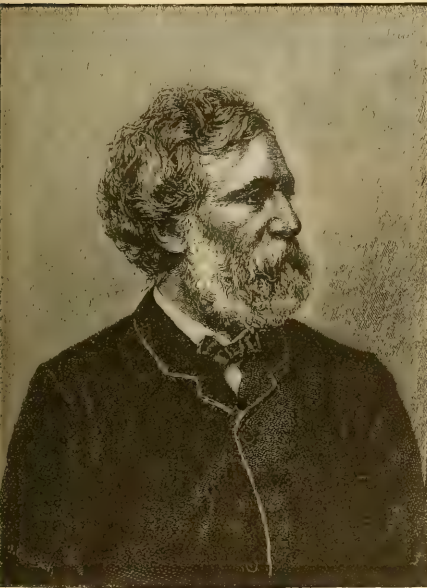
*Byron*, surpassed by Lord **1788-1824.** Byron, a man of great gifts and of powerful imagination, but full of unrest and of unsatisfied passion. His feelings and observations, his experiences and reflections in his travels through Europe, he has immortalized in the two poems, "Childe Harold," and "Don Juan." Beside these he wrote his dramas "Manfred," "Marino Faliero," "Cain," his ballads, and the famous "Hebrew Melodies."



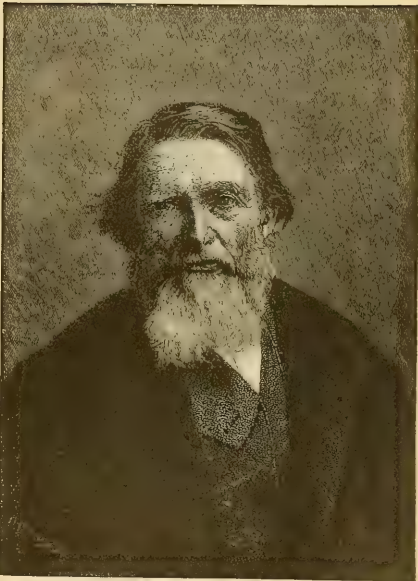
THOMAS BABINGTON MACAULAY. 1800-1859.



GEORGE ELIOT. 1819-1880.



ROBERT BROWNING. 1812-1889.



JOHN RUSKIN. 1819-

RECENT BRITISH AUTHORS.

(pp. 653.)

Byron was endowed with a rare poetic *Shelley*, genius; he knew all the **1792-1822.** movements of the human soul, all its moods and passions, and knew likewise the words in which to clothe them. But he lacked reverence and love for the moral sublime; he was without faith in humanity, or confidence in God; he longed for a better age, and would have died to bring it nearer, but his nature was too turbulent for that steady activity, by which alone the best can be achieved. Thomas Moore, the Irishman, gave to the world, in his "Irish Melodies," a touching expression of the vanished splendor and loveliness of the Emerald Isle. Yet his chief work is his oriental poem, *Lalla Rookh*. Shelley was a gifted, noble, but bewildered nature. He attracted all too soon the condemnation of his pious coun-



PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY. 1792-1822.



CHARLES DICKENS. 1812-1870.

trymen, and led a life of inner struggle and suffering, until death took him early from a world that gave him little pleasure. And yet his poems reveal glimpses of unearthly beauty, although overshadowed by the gloom that always surrounded his powerful mind. In more recent

*Tennyson*, times, Alfred Tennyson **1809-1893.** has become famous for his "Idylls of the King" and his elegiac poem "In Memoriam." Robert

*Browning*, Browning has created **1812-1889.** a new species of poetic representation in the "Ring and the Book." His dramas and dramatic poems abound in lofty thought and powerful phrase, but are lacking in perfection of form and in musical at-

*Carlyle*, tractiveness. Thomas **1795-1881.** Carlyle, in his "Sartor Resartus," first made the English acquainted with the growing influence



of German thought, and in his essays and histories, revealed a genius of surpassing power. His "French Revolution" is unique in the literature of the world. A history, a comment, a prose poem, abounding in dramatic pictures, in bursts of prophetic irony, in flashes of inspired insight, and yet marked with the narrowness of the Scottish puritan. Dickens and Thackeray, in their novels, have acquired great renown, while about them circle a multitude of clever writers, the most famous of whom are Charlotte Brontë, George Eliot (Marian Evans), and Mrs. Gaskell. Macaulay, in his "Essays" and his "History of England," exalted rhetoric to a throne of power; Matthew Arnold brought into English criticism the spirit of the great French master, St. Beuve, while Stuart Mill and Herbert Spencer expounded the philosophies of Utilitarianism, and Evolution with lucidity and force.

In France the classical literature of the old regime was attacked from three sides, first by Idealism, which began with Rousseau's enthusiasm for nature and reason, found expression

*St. Pierre* in the Paul and Virginia of Saint Pierre,  
1737-1814

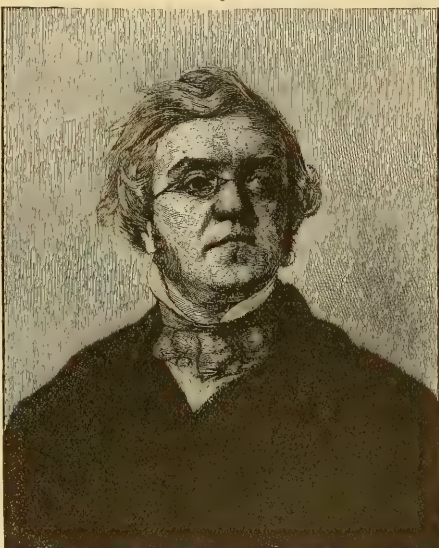
*Madame Roland*, in Madame Roland's  
1754-1793. "Appeal to Posterity," and in Volney's "Ruins;" secondly, by the poetry of the revolution, especially in the Marseillaise hymn, and in the "Young Captive" of André Chénier. But the new romanticism of Madame de Stael, the daughter of Necker, which was enriched with

*Lamartine*, religious sentiment  
1790-1869. by Lamartine, and culminated in Victor Hugo, was the greatest enemy of classicism. Dur-

*Mad. De Stael*, ing her exile from  
1766-1817. Paris, Madame de

Stael made herself familiar with German literature and German life as she showed in her famous "L'Allemagne," and afterward clothed her romantic ideas and her impressions of travel with the poetic form in her romances "Delphine" and "Corinne." Chateaubriand wandered, during the reign of terror, in the forests and wastes of North America, and recorded his impressions in his "René" and "Atala." Upon his return to France, he wrote his great work on the "Genius of Christianity," which contributed greatly to the reconciliation of church and empire.

*Chateaubriand*, and to the restoration of religious feeling in France. After the murder of the Duke d' Enghien, he left the country, and made his pilgrimage to Jerusalem, the fruit of which was the epic poem of the "Martyrs." With the restoration, this poet began his golden age. He became cabinet minister, ambassador at



WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY. 1811-1863.

**Victor Hugo,** several courts, and defender of legitimate monarchy. Lamartine struck the same chords in his religious and poetic "Harmonies" and found a ready welcome with the French public. He made "A Journey to Syria and Palestine," which he described with great charm, and afterward composed his two great poems "Jocelyn," and "The Fall of an Angel." As deputy of the second house, Lamartine gradually renounced his royalist opinions, and became the champion of a cosmopolitan democracy. This led to his history of the "Girondists," which made him so popular, that he was especially adapted to arrest the revolution of 1848. Victor Hugo is famous for his lyrics, dramas, and romances. But he excels as a lyric poet. His "Odes," "Ballads," "Autumn Leaves," and other volumes reveal a sure insight into the souls of men, and a surprising sympathy with all the moods and impulses of the human heart. His dramas however are exaggerated and unnatural, not seldom violating the

laws of beauty and of taste. They abound in cruelties and horrors, in the wild and the impossible. The best known among them are "Cromwell," "Hernani," "Lucretia Borgia," and "Marion Delorme." After the revolution of 1848, he was chosen a member of the National Assembly, but being an eager republican, he opposed bitterly the plans of Louis Napoleon, provoking his wrath to such an extent that he was compelled to fly, in December 1851, and spent many years in the Isle of Jersey, where he wrote several of his greatest works. Among these are "Les Misérables," a picture of social conditions in France, which has become world-famous. In contrast with this romantic poetry, there arose a liberal



VICTOR HUGO.

school which found expression in the political satires of Courier, and in the popular songs of Béranger. This latter poet gives genuine expression to French character in its nobler phases. He is cheerful, full of life, and yet amiable, noble, and enthusiastic for freedom and for human welfare. A lover of his country and of mankind, and a child of the people, he spoke the natural language of the heart, and was at once the comfort and the inspiration of the masses. This literary liberalism came to an end with the July revolution. A new power entered the field. The didactic romance, which attacked not only monarchy and hierarchy, but all the traditions of society. **George Sand,** was the most gifted and attractive of all these writers. Her contemporaries, Eugene Sue and Alexander Dumas, pictured society rather than attacked it. The present school of French litera-

ture wavers between a poetic and a repulsive realism. Daudet and Bourget represent the former, and Flaubert and Zola are the masters of the latter tendency.

Russia, during the 19th century, has created a literature of acknowledged power.

**Puschkin** This began with Alexander Puschkin, whose poetry reflects every phase  
**1799-1837.** of popular life. Turgenieff portrayed the dark side of Russian society  
**Turgenieff,** and popular manners, with cutting severity but vivid realism, while Tol-  
**1818-1883.** stoi has astonished his contemporaries with a power of imagination, a grasp  
of details, a strength of thought, and an audacity of ideas almost unexampled in our age.

Hungarian literature originated in our century, and reached its perfection in Alex-  
**Petoefi,** ander Petoefi, a poet and a hero who fell fighting for democracy and inde-  
**1823-1849.** pendence. His songs of wine and of love, and his pictures of travel,  
are the fruit of many wanderings among shepherds and peasants, gypsies and robbers.

Danish poetry was, in earlier times, influenced chiefly by Germany, but Adam Oehlenschläger founded a national school, choosing for his themes the old Norse stories.

**1805-1875.** Hans Christian Andersen, in his fables, attracted readers in all coun-  
**Ibsen born 1828.** tries, and the two Norwegians, Björnson and Ibsen, have been recog-  
nized as men of surprising genius through their stories and dramas. The greatest poet of  
Sweden is Tegner. His "Story of Fritjhof" is the national poem of the Swedish people.  
*c. The Fine Arts.*

Romanticism had a powerful influence upon the development of the fine  
arts, especially upon painting. It enriched art with new elements, gave a nobler sig-  
nificance to artistic ideas, unfolded a deeper spiritual life, and prevented absorption in  
form to the exclusion of mental and moral significance. The two schools, the classic  
and the romantic, struggled for a while for sole supremacy, but both tendencies were  
finally reconciled in a natural and powerful realism. The champion of classical art in

**Mengs,** Germany was Raphael Mengs, the son of a Saxon court painter, who  
**1728-1779.** aroused a new love for art by his pictures in oil and in fresco, and  
although he was by no means a genius, showed the way to a nobler taste. David,

**David,** the French painter, in his imitation of the antique and his studies of  
**1748-1825.** nature, of models, and of the theatre, revealed the weakness of the  
classical school; for he attached so little importance to the imagination and to crea-  
tive composition. Carstens was more reasonable. Although he studied the antique  
with great seriousness, he reproduced its forms freely and boldly from memory and  
imagination. But he found no sympathy among his contemporaries, and wasted away  
in poverty and disease at Rome. His influence lived on, however, in his successors.

**Overbeck,** Overbeck and Schadow were the leaders of the new romantic school.  
**1790-1869.** They devoted their art exclusively to Christian representations, after  
the manner of the old German and old Italian painters. A greater than either of

**Cornelius,** these was Peter Cornelius of Dusseldorf, the founder of the school of  
**1793-1862.** art at Munich. In 1841 Cornelius was called to Berlin by Frederick

William IV., whither he was followed by William Kaulbach, who painted the great  
**Kaulbach,** frescos of the new museum. In more recent times, the German

**1805-1874.** painters have been noteworthy for the variety of their themes. Piloty,  
in Munich and his pupil Makart have followed the realistic school of France and Bel-  
gium, while Anselm Feuerbach has perfected the idealism of the old Italian masters.  
Defregger has become celebrated for his scenes of Bavarian popular life, while Menzel



and Werner have preserved for posterity the memories of a great time in their national painting.

In France and in Belgium painting reached a great perfection. Gerard followed the example of David. Robert was the creator of the historical picture of common life. Horace Vernet immortalized scenes from the army and camp life of the Napo-

**Delacroix,** leonic time, while Delacroix portrayed Dante and Virgil in their voyage to the city of Hell. In Delaroche, the romantic realistic school

reached its most powerful expression. In England, Turner produced his landscapes deemed worthy to take their place beside those of Claude Lorraine, while David Wilkie acquired great renown by his pictures of English and of Scottish life. Architecture and sculpture had also their devoted artists. Canova breathed into his statues a

**Canova,** certain grace, which, however, was marred at times by a painful effort

at effect. The first sculptor of the age was Thorwaldsen, born at Copenhagen, though his parents came from Iceland. Like Carstens, he was an earnest student of the antique. The old world of gods and heroes was the realm in which Thorwaldsen delighted to dwell, and in which he found the themes for his statues and reliefs. And yet he was too close to actual life to withdraw himself from the tendencies of his time, and these tendencies were toward religion and common humanity. Christ, the apostles, and other figures of sacred history, were wrought out by Thor-

**Thorwaldsen,** waldsen with great power. The most famous of his monumental

works are the Gutenberg monument in Mayence, the statue of Schiller in Stuttgart, and the "Dying Lion" in Luzerne. Though honors and distinctions were showered down upon him, he preserved his simplicity and his love for his friends, having no preference for splendor and society. Danneker is renowned for his "Ariadne;" Schadow, father of the painter, for his Victoria at the Brandenburg gate at Berlin; Rauch for his monument of Queen Louise, and the great group surmounted by the equestrian statue of Frederick the Great at Berlin. Rietschel solved the difficult

**Rauch,** problem of clothing statues in the costume of the time, without destroying their ideality. Schwanthaler is famous for his statues of Mozart

and of Goethe, and for the colossal work "Bavaria" in Munich.

In musical art, secular music has gradually displaced the supremacy of sacred.

**Gluck,** Gluck gave to the musical drama a new significance, and Mozart created a number of operas, which, like the dramas of Schiller, are the

**Mozart,** pride and the delight of the German people. But Beethoven, in his sym-

**1756-1791.** phonies and sonnets, revealed the possibilities of music beyond the

**Beethoven,** boldest anticipation of his predecessors or contemporaries. Mendel-

**1770-1827.** sohn, by his oratorios and his songs, and Weber, by his operas, gave

**Haydn,** to their ideas a noble, and at the same time a national expression,

**1732-1809.** while Meyerbeer was a master of ingenious and startling effects. But

**Mendelssohn,** a new epoch of German opera began with Richard Wagner. The

**1809-1847.** musical-declamatory opera re-appeared. A disciple of Gluck in prin-

**Schubert,** ciple, he had no love for simplicity, but strove for the colossal, the

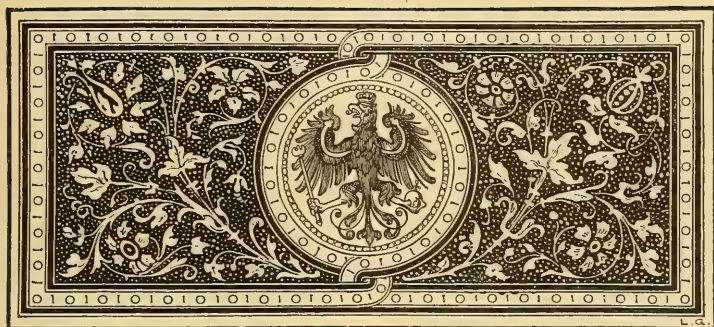
**1797-1828.** massive, the over-whelming. No artist has ever had bitterer enemies,

or more enthusiastic friends, than the composer of Tannhäuser, Lohengrin, and Parsi-

**Wagner,** val. Schubert and Schumann are renowned for their songs, while the

**1813-1883.** Italians. Rossini and Verdi, have preserved the traditions of their

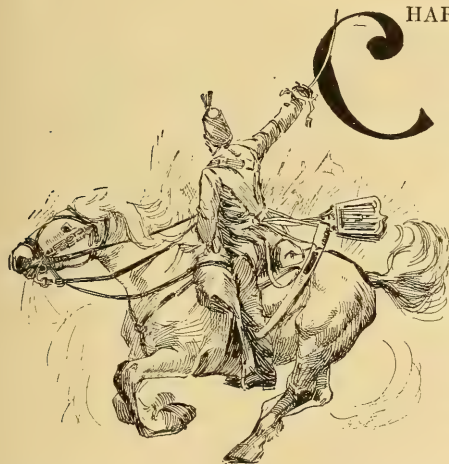
people in the music that they have written in the spirit of Gluck and of Mozart.



## F. LATER REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENTS.

### I. FRANCE. THE JULY REVOLUTION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

§ 557.



**C**HARLES X. regardless of public opinion, pushed forward on the path of re-  
*Aug. 8, 1829.* action. The liberal ministry yielded to an ultra-royalist cabinet under Polignac's presidency, and when the chamber expressed dissatisfaction with the policy of the government, the king dissolved it and

*May, 1830.* ordered a new election. In vain, the men of the opposition appeared in greater numbers, and thus confirmed the distrust of the people toward the new ministry. Charles X. was not to be taught. He thought that the glory with which the French troops were covering themselves in Africa would produce a more favorable sentiment. When

*July 5.* the *Moniteur* published the famous "Three Ordinances" in which the freedom of the Press was suspended, the new chamber was dissolved before it was convened, and the election law  
*July 26-30.* was arbitrarily changed, the July Revolution occurred. After three days' heroic fight in the streets of Paris, the people conquered for themselves, emancipation from the Bourbon dynasty and from priestly domination. On the 29th of July, during the hottest of the street fight, a provisional government was established by the deputies of the chamber then present in Paris. Laffitte, the banker, Casimir-Périer and Odilon Barrot carried on this administration until the constitutional party prevailed over the republicans, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was named as pro-

terior of the State. When it was too late, Charles X. offered to take back the hated ordinances, and to appoint a popular ministry. He was compelled to go with his family a third time into exile, while his shrewder relative, Louis Philippe, after swear-

ing fidelity to the hastily revised constitution, ascended the throne as king of the French. The restoration of the tri-color and the re-establishment of the



CAPTURE OF ALGIERS. (F. LAM.)

National Guard under La Fayette's command, marked the beginning of the new kingdom: a kingdom created by the people. Algiers was retained by the new government and organized as a colony: not, however, without long weary struggles with the Mohammedan population and their indomitable chief Abdel Kader. Charles X. died in exile in the year 1836.

§ 558. The Holy Alliance, already shaken by the death of Alexander, fell to pieces from the shock of the July revolution, and throughout Europe, movements began which produced a transformation. The French monarchy, it is true, took up a peaceful attitude toward the other states of Europe. The victorious liberals in Paris preferred mediation and reconciliation to conflict and civil strife, and sought to gain the moderates and the undecided for the maintenance of existing conditions. Nevertheless the movement was mighty enough to break through, in more than one place, the artificial structure of the Congress of Vienna. Belgium, Germany, Poland, and Italy, were the scenes of insurrections which it required two years of struggle to suppress; and although the influence of Russia, Austria, and Prussia was strong enough to



maintain the old state of affairs in most countries, nevertheless, liberal ideas increased so rapidly, and public opinion became so powerful, that all the measures of the police régime were set at defiance. In western Europe, the influence of England and of France prevailed, and this was in favor of a constitutional system, of civil freedom and of representative institutions.

§ 559. The revolution in Belgium was the immediate consequence of the events of July in Paris. The Vienna Congress had united the provinces of Flanders and Brabant with Holland, to form a kingdom of the Netherlands, without the slightest regard to religion, language, or national interest. The Dutch regarded themselves as the ruling race. They compelled the Belgians to share their large national debt and their high taxes, tried to force upon them the Dutch language and Dutch laws, and to place the education of the Catholic youth under the control of Protestant authorities. And when the press assumed a

**1830.** hostile tone, the government proceeded against the journalists with fines, imprisonment and banishment. This led to an alliance between the French Liberal party which was working for a free constitution, and the Catholic ultra-montane party, which demanded freedom of instruction,—an alliance against the Dutch government, which the king in a speech from the throne designated as “infamous.”

The dissatisfaction, produced by this royal utterance, was so great, that when the news of the Paris Revolution reached Brussels, it set the whole city ablaze. On the evening of the 25th. of August mobs destroyed the printing office of a newspaper of Dutch proclivities, the palace of the Minister of Justice, and the dwelling of the chief of police. To prevent further devastation by the mob, a citizen-guard was constituted, and a citizens' committee, until finally the radical and ultra-montane party combined to form a “national congress.” The example of Brussels soon found imitators, so that in a short time the Brabant flag was waving in all Belgium. An attack of the Dutch upon Brussels was repulsed, and the Belgian insurgents now advanced upon Antwerp, in order to take this city also from their hated neighbor. Thereupon the Dutch general, Chassé, withdrew into the citadel, and bombarded the city with three hundred cannon for seven hours. Indignant at this conduct, the National Congress declared the independence of Belgium, and the exclusion of the House of Orange from the Belgian throne. Meanwhile, a conference of the

**Nov. 1830.** five great powers was called together in London, and after long discussion, it came to the conclusion to separate Belgium from Holland, and to establish just frontiers: accordingly Leopold of Saxe Coburg, a relative of the English sovereign,

**June 1831.** who was shortly afterward married to a daughter of Louis Philippe,



LOUIS PHILIPPE. (*Wintherthaler*).

received the Belgian crown. Leopold sought to pacify the liberals by a grant of representative institutions, and the Catholic clergy, by the complete independence of the Church from the State. In vain the Dutch attempted a second time to subjugate the

*Dec. 1832.* seceding provinces. Threatened and opposed by France and England, they were compelled, in spite of the bravery of their army and navy, to abstain from

further war. Belgium, however, began at once to prosper, both in its free institutions, and in its rapidly developed industries.



LEOPOLD I., KING OF THE BELGIANS. (*Wine*).

§ 560. The happy issue of the French and Belgian Revolutions impelled the Poles to insurrection. The Vienna Congress had created a kingdom of Poland, and subjected it to the Czar of Russia. The constitution, which provided for a diet, and for a national army, also afforded the people liberty with law; their industry prospered, literature revived, while great highways opened up a growing commerce. But all these advantages were not sufficient to efface among the Poles the desire for the resurrection of their country, and the hope that the French nation would hasten to help their old ally, strengthened them in the belief that the hour of Poland's regeneration was at hand. On the 29th of Novem-

*1830.* ber, twenty armed cadets of the Royal School forced their way into the palace of the Viceroy, whom they had sworn to murder, while other conspirators called the people of Warsaw to arms. The Grand Duke barely escaped the fate intended for him, and yielding to the storm, with-

drew from the land. A provisional government undertook the conduct of affairs, but the regency, which was composed of Polish noblemen, chose the way of negotiation rather than that of war, and although Chlopicki was soon appointed dictator, and although the hastily summoned diet invested Prince Radzivil with supreme authority, the situation was not bettered. The aristocracy, dissatisfied with the violence of the democratic and republican clubs, held matters in their hands and hindered all enterprises by their delay and discord. While the Emperor of Russia was advancing into

*Jan. 25, 1831.* Poland with an army of two hundred thousand men, the Diet declared the House of Romanoff to have forfeited the throne of Poland: but refused to free the lands of the peasants and to abolish feudal tribute and rejected the proclama-

tion of a people's war, which was all that could have saved Poland. The Polish army was brave enough in the field of battle. Chlopicki fought like a hero, and Dwernicki astonished the world by his bold retreat into Austrian territory; yet the Poles were

*May 26, 1831.* defeated by the Russians and ruined by discord, treachery, and the duplicity of the French mediators. Diebitsch, the Russian general, died of the cholera. His successor, Paskiewitch, crossed the Vistula and advanced upon Warsaw. The democrats of the capital, believing that the failure of the revolution was due to treason, began a horrible massacre. A mob headed by soldiers forced its way into the castle, murdered the generals stationed there, and attacked several persons suspected and hated as aristocrats, friends of Russia, or spies. Czartoryski, in whose hands the authority had been placed, fled to the camp of General Dembinski. The Diet now appointed Krukowicki president, with dictatorial power, and thus entrusted the highest authority to the hands of a man who was either a fool or a traitor. When the Russian army approached the capital, the dictator issued the most contradictory orders. The Polish army bravely withstood the advancing enemy, and the heroic deeds of the fourth regiment have been often celebrated in song. But, after a two-days storm, Warsaw and Prague were surrendered to the Russians, after which the

*Sept. 6-7, 1831.* government and the Diet, with the remaining troops, took refuge in Prussia. Here they were disarmed and held prisoners until Poland was completely subjugated, when they received the promise of an amnesty and permission to return. But thousands of them rejected the mercy of the Emperor, preferring to eat the bread of sorrow on foreign soil, rather than to witness patiently the gradual extermination of Polish nationality. In Poland and Littau court-martials were held, and the mines of Siberia were peopled with their victims. Poland was deprived of its constitution, its Diet, and its royal council, and became a Russian province with a separate administration, and a separate judiciary. Humiliated Warsaw was ruled with an iron sceptre. The emigrants attempted in vain, by conspiracies and uprisings in Cracow, Galicia and Posen, to accomplish the rescue of their fatherland. New prosecutions, and the final incorporation of the free-state Cracow into the Austrian monarchy, were the only results of these desperate undertakings.

§ 561. Germany too was moved mightily by the news of the Revolution of July. The princes, fearing that the French desire for the left bank of the Rhine might precipitate a new war, noticed with anxiety the discord between people and government, and hastened, partly by just concessions, and partly by swift recognition of accomplished changes, to diminish the discontent, and to prevent a union of the discontented. The uprisings in Hanover and Saxony were appeased by the granting of liberal constitutions, and by the abolition of oppressive abuses and limitations. In Brunswick, where the inhabitants had destroyed the castle, and forced Duke Carl to fly, his brother William assumed the government, and pacified the excited people by a reformation of the constitution. In Hesse-Cassel, the elector William II. consented to a liberal constitution, but the hate which the people showed to the Countess Reichenbach, his ill-assorted wife, so angered the elector that he made his son regent, and with the Countess and his other treasures, abandoned Hesse; he lived partly in Baden-Baden, partly in Frankfort, where he died in 1847. In Baden, the freedom of the press was introduced; and in the South German legislatures, the liberals acquired the majority, and pressed for changes and reforms in constitution and administration. But the increas-



ing boldness of the party, in speech and in writing, especially the proceedings at the festival of Hambach, induced a swift reaction. The peaceful character of the July monarchy, and the fall of Warsaw, freed the German princes from the fear that the liberal movements might receive foreign support: and the undertaking of some young enthusiasts to break up the Diet of Frankfort was a welcome performance to the leaders of the reaction. Many were arrested; prisons and fortresses were filled with political criminals; France and Switzerland became the homes of numberless German fugitives; the censorship of the press was re-established; the publication of books watched with the utmost care; and the prerogatives of legislative bodies greatly diminished. The party of progress was thus brought to a halt, by the violence of its own adherents. Victory belonged to the governments. But they knew not how to use it. For they soon outraged the feelings of the people in many ways, especially

*June, 1837.* when, at the accession of Victoria to the throne of England, the crown of Hanover fell to her uncle, Ernst August, of Cumberland. For he abolished the constitution already granted, and restored the old feudal arrangements, and, notwithstanding the opposition which he encountered on every side, summoned all servants of the state to take a new oath of allegiance. When seven professors of the University of Göttingen refused, he deprived them of their places, and banished them from the kingdom; so, too, when the assembly of estates lacked a quorum, because so many members refused to attend, their places were filled by members of the minority. These, and similar measures, made a great gulf between the people and their rulers. The "police state" was everywhere dreaded and hated, and the Bureaucracy was the object of universal dislike. In the press, in literature, in poetry, the existing political system was constantly denounced; while among the people, every opposition to the Bureaucrats was heartily applauded. Yet amid all these struggles and divisions, there was one impulse in which all shared,—the longing for national unity, and for a strong German confederation, established upon mutual interests. And this led to the found-

*1833.* ing of the "customs union," the corner stone of German political unity. (Zollverein).

§ 562. In Italy, likewise, the July Revolution produced serious consequences, but the hopes of the patriots were soon carried to the grave. The uprisings in Bologna, Modena and Parma, were quickly suppressed by Austrian troops, and the banished regents immediately restored. In the papal states, the papal troops, supplemented by bandits and convicts, were employed to put down the insurrection. These ruffians raged so furiously, that the Austrian military became necessary to protect the government and the country from their own soldiers. Jealous of Austria, the French

*Feb. 1832.* now took possession of Ancona. An attempt to overthrow the Sardinian throne, and, with the help of young Italy, to precipitate a revolution, failed ingloriously. A band of fugitives under the lead of the Polish general, Ramorino, a

*1833.* native of Genoa, started from Switzerland to invade Savoy, but without success. In Spain the liberals came to the front once more, not, however, through

*Oct. 1830.* their own strength, but in consequence of a disputed succession to the throne. Ferdinand had been persuaded by his fourth wife, Marie Christine, to abolish the Salic law, and to secure the succession to his infant daughter Isabella. This change displeased the apostolic party, which put its entire trust in Ferdinand's

*Sept. 1833.* younger brother, Don Carlos. Hardly had the king closed his eyes,

when the Absolutists proclaimed Don Carlos king, and provoked a civil war. They found support in the northern provinces, especially among the rude inhabitants of the Basque mountains. Instigated by priests and monks, led by brave and enterprising brigands, the Basques drew their swords for the absolute monarch, who had taken refuge in their midst. The Queen regent, Marie Christine, now made overtures to the constitutionals and the liberals, agreeing to introduce a parliamentary constitution, and to permit the return of the fugitives and the exiles. Thus the war of the succession became a war of principles and a civil war. After many bloody battles, the Christinos **1839.** were successful; the Carlists laid down their arms, and Don Carlos, with his family and many officers and priests, took refuge in France. General Espartero **1841.** now quarreled with the queen mother, and this was the beginning of new struggles, constitutional changes and court intrigues. Espartero was powerful **1843.** enough to procure Christine's banishment for a time, and to assume the regency. But he was soon put down by General Narvaez, an adherent of the queen mother, and compelled to fly to England. Christine returned and continued to reign until her daughter Isabella reached her majority. Both mother and daughter were controlled by the suggestions of the king of France.

## 2. THE GOVERNMENT OF JULY AND THE POPULAR UPRISING OF 1848.

### a. *The Years of Political and Social Excitement.*

§ 563. The July monarchy, erected as it was upon the uncertain foundations of popular sovereignty, suffered many attacks. The adherents of the Bourbons and of the Legitimists were joined by the Republicans in their attempts to overthrow the new order. Only the prosperous middle class, anxious to preserve their possessions, and expecting to find salvation in a constitutional monarchy, were satisfied with the government of July, and upon these Louis Philippe particularly depended. But when the King delayed to extend the suffrage and to call the less prosperous citizens to take part in political life, the number of his supporters became quite small. Moreover, the King failed to win the hearts of the French. Though possessed of an immense fortune, he used his high station to increase his riches. As a consequence, he was reproached with selfishness and greed, and this reproach fell upon his ministers and office-holders. All were looked upon as tainted with corruption, and even the beautiful domestic life of the royal family failed of proper recognition. The Legitimists were the first to attack the King and his ministry. But the hate of the people for the Bourbons was yet too fresh for them to succeed. The unfurling of the white flag,

**Feb., 1831.** at the death of the Duke de Berri, caused an uprising, in consequence of which the palace of the Arch-bishop of Paris was destroyed. The attempt of the Duchess of Berri to arouse the Vendéans also failed. When she was arrested and her

**Nov., 1832.** secret marriage revealed, the romantic charm that clung to the banished royal family gradually disappeared. The Legitimists, with the aged poet Chateaubriand at their head, now gave up the hope of placing Count Chambord upon the throne. They called him Henry V., but they could give him neither sceptre nor authority. The Republicans were more dangerous. The uprisings in Lyons and Paris

**1831-2-4.** were suppressed, and the ring-leaders punished; but the newspapers were alive with their opinions, and in their secret assemblies they obtained more and more adherents. The *National* was the much persecuted and much punished organ







FIESCHI'S ATTEMPT ON THE LIFE OF LOUIS PHILIPPE. (*F. Lix.*) (pp. 667.)

struggle with her oppressors. The King of Naples sought to appease his people by a parliamentary constitution, and compelled other princes thereby to do likewise. The Grand-duke Leopold of Tuscany, and Charles Albert of Sardinia, were among those that followed his example. But the Duke of Modena, an ardent champion of the divine right of princes, escaped the hatred of the people by flight, while in Parma the

*Dec. 18. 1847.* throne became vacant by the death of the Duchess Marie Louise, the little beloved and little respected widow of Napoleon Bonaparte. All this filled the



POPE PIUS IX.

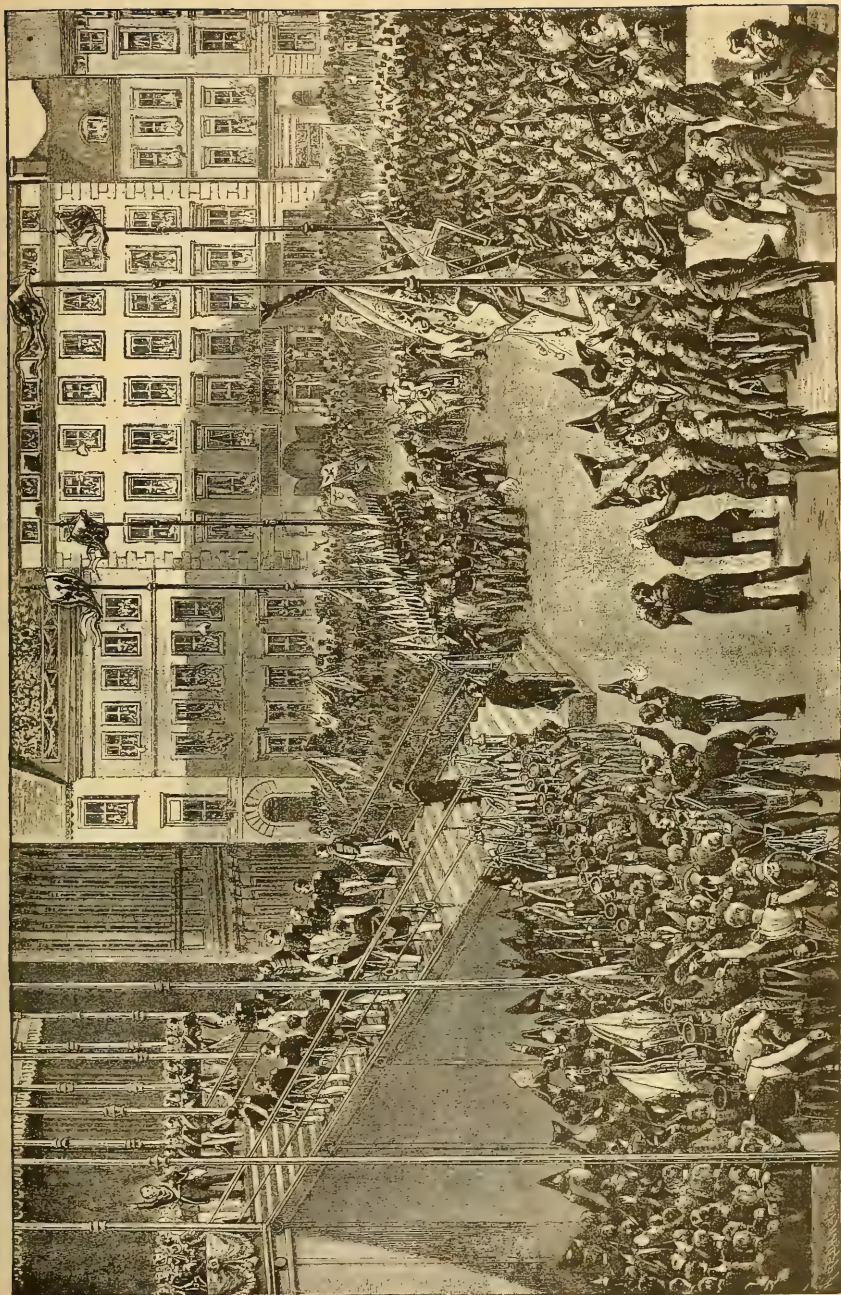
Italians with the hope of national unity and freedom. Only two powers stood in the way of their achievement—the Jesuits and the Austrians—and upon these were poured the glowing hatred of the Italians. Hurrahs for Gioberti, the foe of the Jesuits, and death to the Germans mingled in the cries of “Long live Pionono, the saviour of Italy!”

In Germany the opposition between the government and the people had reached a crisis. The writings of young Germany, the songs of the political poets, the boldness of the daily press, the liberal writings of young philosophers and theologians, the doctrines and speeches

of the “friends of light” among the Protestants, and of the “German Catholics” among the Catholics, revealed the deep dissatisfaction of the people with the existing state and church. Frederick William IV., who became king of Prussia in 1840, tried to meet this feeling with reforms. He opened the sittings of the courts to the public, issued an edict of toleration, and called the Estates of his

*1847.* Provinces to assemble in Berlin. When the Estates met, the demands of the people for a free press and a free state were supported with such eloquence and with such earnestness, that they could no longer be resisted. Meanwhile, a great





FREDERICK WILLIAM IV. IN BERLIN, OCT. 15, 1840. (Franz Krüger.)



crisis took place in the commercial world. A financial panic robbed thousands of their fortunes, brought multitudes to the edge of starvation. To make matters worse, famine and pestilence visited the regions of industrial activity, and misery spread into every corner of Germany. Uprisings in Berlin, Stuttgart, Munich, and other cities were the consequence. The military and police soon put down the tumults, and a

rich harvest put an end to the famine; but it was impossible any longer to overlook the inequalities of fortune which the crisis had revealed. The excitement and dissatisfaction with the political institutions of Germany was greatly increased by the infatuation of King Ludwig of Bavaria, for the Spanish dancer, Lola Montez, by whom the aged monarch was led into extravagance and hasty action. The ultra-montane party quarreled with the king's darling, the Countess of Landsfeld, as she was called: and as a consequence, the ministry and the heads of the university were dismissed, and when the students took the part of their professors, the King closed the university, and ordered the students to depart. An insurrec-

Feb., 1848.

tion followed. The King was obliged to retract, and the Countess Lola



GUIZOT.

was dismissed from the country. Switzerland was in the same decade, the scene of great hostility between Catholics and Protestants, conservatives and radicals. Eight cloisters of Aargau had been abolished, and their estates been confiscated by the government. The Catholic Cantons protested, but without avail. Lucerne now entrusted the Jesuits with the education of her youth, and when the radicals stirred

up a tumult, a desperate conflict took place between them and the Jesuits. The Catholic Cantons demanded the punishment of the rioters, and a restoration of the  
**1846.** cloisters. When this was refused them, they seceded and formed a separate union. The radicals declared this conduct unconstitutional, and demanded the expulsion of the Jesuits. The Catholic Cantons refused to disband. The government then attacked them with the sword. The struggle was brief. The government soon conquered Freiburg, when Lucerne and the other Cantons submitted  
**July, 1847.** at once. Their separate union was dissolved, the Jesuits were expelled, the governments of the Cantons modified, and the costs of the war imposed  
**Dec., 1847.** upon the Catholics. Austria, France, and Prussia came too late with their mediation, and the failure of France was one of the causes of the revolution. The Swiss used the opportunity to change their constitution. The Federal council, which sits permanently in Berne, was conjoined with the council of the Cantons, and a national council elected by the people.

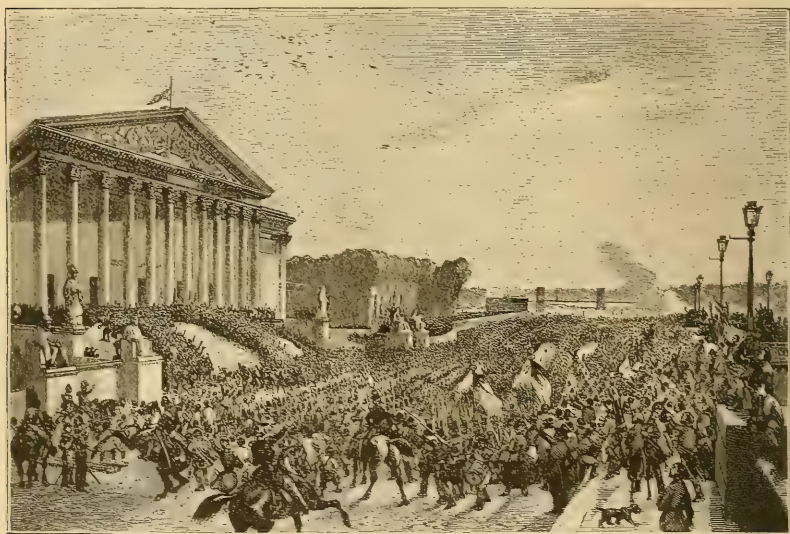
*b. The February Revolution in Paris.*

§ 565. While these events were occurring in Italy and Switzerland, the policy of Guizot was giving great offence to the French liberals. The excitement was increased by a trial of high officials for bribery, and by the murder of the Duchess of Praslin by her own husband. The people were satisfied that a government, upborne by such rotten pillars, was impossible. The cry for reform went through the land, and the reform desired was universal suffrage. Throughout France reform banquets were the order of the day, and when the Chambers were convened in Paris, a reform banquet was arranged for, to give expression to the popular mind. But the government forbade the banquet, and the speech from the throne described the movement as one started by hostile or blind passions. The program for the banquet was issued nevertheless. But when the government took military measures for its suppression, it was abandoned. When the members of the opposition determined to accuse the ministry of a breach of the constitution. The people however were too excited to be thus appeased. Mobs of artisans, tramps, students, and street-Arabs marched through the streets crying "Reform! Down with Guizot!" The crowds increased with every hour; the soldiers spared them; the police were too feeble to put them down; barri-

**Feb. 1848.** cades were erected and defended. The fight lasted for two days, when the King dismissed Guizot and promised reform. The crowds now marched singing and hurrahing through the streets; most of the barricades disappeared, and the houses were illuminated. But this did not suit the secret societies. They wanted much more than a change of ministry. The barricades in the northeast part of the city, where the working classes lived, were still standing. About ten o'clock, a crowd of people with flags and torches marched through the Boulevards, singing and shouting. They halted before the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and demanded the illumination of the building. The troops now interfered, but the Colonel commanding was insulted. Suddenly a shot was fired, and the soldiers delivered a volley which killed and wounded fifty-two of the mob. The corpses were placed upon a bier, and carried through the streets by men carrying torches and crying "to arms: they are murdering us." At midnight, the bells were rung, and the next morning, the 24th, of February, all the streets of Paris were barricaded. A violent struggle soon ended with the victory of the people.

Louis Philippe abdicated, and fled with his wife to England, whither the rest of his family soon followed. A republican government was established, under the presidency of the aged Dupont de l' Eure, and in which the poet Lamartine, the leaders of the left, Ledru-Rollin and Arago, and the socialist, Louis Blanc, took part. But the new government did not bring the expected happiness. As the revolution was the work of the working classes, something must be done to better their condition. National workshops were established to provide employment at the expense of the state. The state expenses mounted up with great rapidity, and the number of men out of work increased with every day. The workshops had to be closed: the working classes thereupon attempted a new revolution, seeking power for the fourth estate. This led

**JUNE 22, 1848.** to the cruelties of June, in which the advocates of the Red Republic dis-



FEBRUARY REVOLUTION IN PARIS, 1848.—TROCALING THE REPUBLIC.

(*B. Adam and J. Arnout.*)

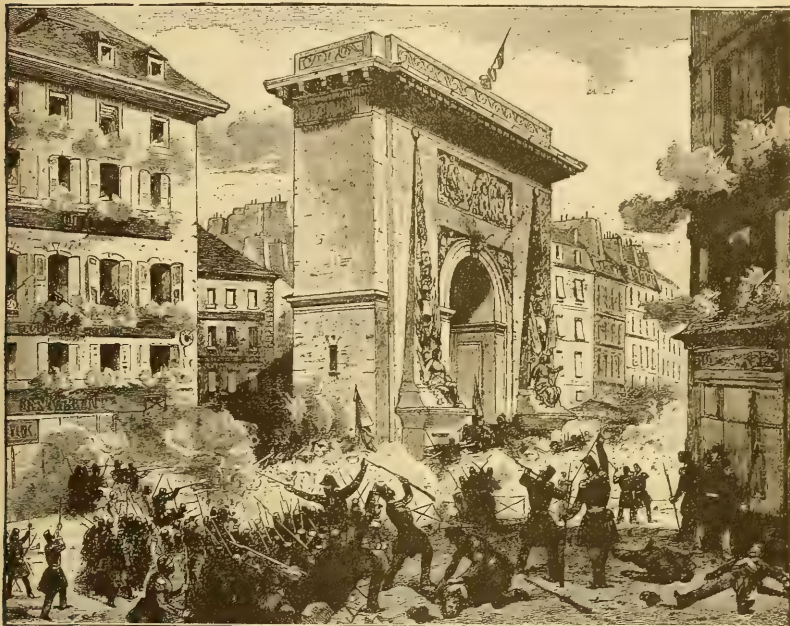
graced themselves by their ferocious brutality. They murdered the General Bréa and Arch-bishop, Affre of Paris, and filled the barricades with the corpses of their enemies. General Cavaignac was thereupon made dictator by the National Assembly. He conquered the insurgents, had crowds of them arrested and deported, and placed Paris under martial law. The National Assembly, under his protection, completed a republican constitution with a single chamber, and a president to be chosen every four years. They would fain have elected General Cavaignac to the presidency, but the

**Dec. 10, 1848.** nation, blinded by the splendor of the imperial name, chose Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the nephew of Napoleon, who had twice attempted the overthrow



of Louis Philippe, and undergone a long imprisonment as a punishment for his reckless enterprise.

§ 566. The news of the Paris revolution produced an agitation in all Europe. In Germany, Hungary, and Italy, popular uprisings took place, that far exceeded all previous movements in extent and strength. A propaganda was established, with its head-center at Paris, to keep alive the revolutionary feeling, and to spread republican ideas, of a socialistic character. The first effects were seen in Baden. The Grand-duchy had been long distinguished for its political activity, and it now marched for-

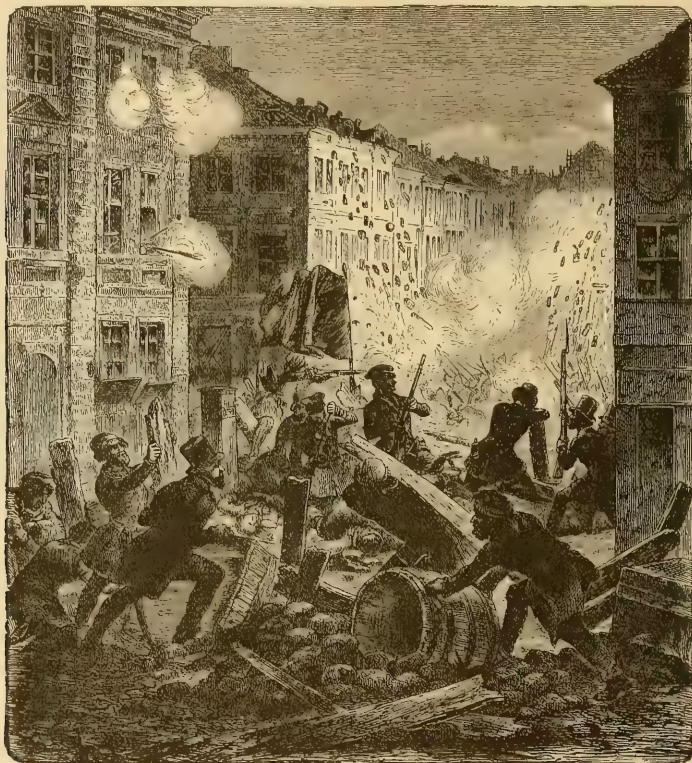


THE JUNE REVOLUTION IN PARIS, 1848.

ward with the banner of progress and of reform. Urgent petitions demanded freedom of the press, trial by jury, the right to bear arms, and a German parliament. The government of Baden conceded these points, and went even further in the adoption of conciliatory measures. The example of Baden affected other German states. In Württemberg and Saxony, the chiefs of the liberal opposition were called to the cabinet. The leaders of the liberal party in South Germany met at Heidelberg, to consider the welfare of the nation, and issued an appeal to the German people, in which they urged the convening of a National Assembly. But the agitation was

*March, 1848.* greatest in the Austrian Empire. An insurrection took place in Vienna, which led to the overthrow of Prince Metternich, who retired to En-

land. The old ordinances were soon dissolved, and the Austrian capital was for a while in a state of lawlessness. Freedom of the press produced a revolutionary literature. The right of free assembly led to stormy meetings and democratic clubs. The plans of the revolutionists were greatly furthered by the vast number of unemployed workmen. Demagogues came into Vienna from all quarters, and street fights became the order of the day. The Emperor, with his court, retired to



DEFENSE OF THE BARRICADES.

*May, 1848.* Innsbruck, and did not return to the capital, until the Constitutional As-

*July.* sembly convened, which entreated him urgently to come back to Vienna.

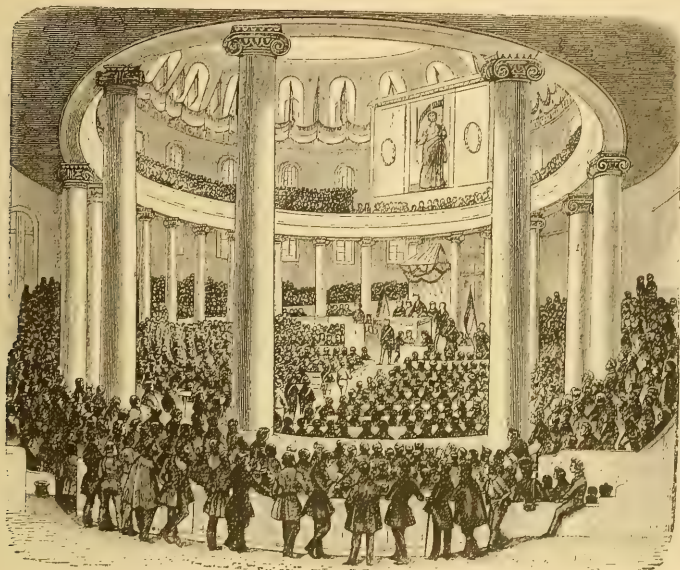
Berlin likewise had her days of March. Reluctantly the Prussian government conceded

*March, 7.* the freedom of the press and other reforms, and promised a transformation of the German union. Conflicts between the soldiers and the people so embittered the latter, that they demanded the removal of the troops and the establishment of a citizen-

militia. Foreign agitators, especially Poles, increased the excitement and the bitter feeling by their exasperating speeches. Mobs gathered before the castle and insulted

*March, 18.* the soldiers with their threats. A detachment of infantry pushed them back at the point of the bayonet; two shots were fired, by whom or whence is unknown. These were the signal for a street fight, that raged violently for two weeks. The King finally commanded the military to be withdrawn, dismissed his ministry, and consented to the creation of a citizen guard for the defence of the city and the protection of the castle. An amnesty was proclaimed; all political prisoners were discharged, and all political exiles permitted to return. Three days after the proclama-

*March, 21.* of the amnesty, the King declared that he would govern as a constitu-



GERMAN REVOLUTION, 1848.—MEETING OF THE PARLIAMENT.

tional monarch, and place himself at the head of a free and united Germany. A constitutional assembly was elected by universal suffrage, and a few weeks afterward this assembly began the difficult work of preparing a constitution for the Prussian monarchy.

§ 567. Meanwhile all the German states were undergoing great changes. The Congress of the Union had been transformed by a number of Liberal ambassadors, and a committee of seventeen was appointed to sketch a new constitution for the German union. King Louis of Bavaria yielded to public opinion, and abdicated in

*March, 1848.* favor of the Crown-prince Maximilian. The Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt made way for his son. In Hanover and other states Liberals were called into the ministry, and set about democratic reforms, with headlong haste. In some sections



revolutions broke out, the peasants destroying the rent and tithe-books, and the castles of their landlords. It was not enough for the radicals that a national assembly should frame a new constitution for Germany; they were determined to found a German republic immediately, and to that end Hecker and Struve called the people to arms. This movement took place in Baden, but ended in a speedy defeat of the insurgents. The National Assembly began its session on the 18th of May in St. Paul's church at Frankfort. It included the most talented and eloquent men of the German nation. Its first act was to abolish The Congress of the Union, and to establish a new Central Government. After violent debates, it was determined to choose an irresponsible executive who should be surrounded with a responsible ministry. The

**July 11, 1848.** Arch-duke John of Austria was chosen such chief magistrate and accepted the office in July, 1848. (Reichsverweser. Imperial Executive.)

§ 568 Italy was the scene of similar changes and excitements. The banner of independence was unfurled in Sicily, and for a year a desperate struggle was main-



RADEZKY DE RADEZ.

tained against Naples, but without success. The King of Naples, with his hired Swiss soldiers, subjugated the Sicilians, and then abolished the constitution that he had granted to his people in the hour of his extremity. In Rome the excitement was more than Pope Pius IX. could manage. He promised to grant a constitutional govern-

**Nov. 15, 1848.** ment, and convened an assembly in the eternal city, but his minister, Rossi, was stabbed to death, and the Democrats usurped all authority. The Pope fled in disguise to Gaëta, abandoning his capital to the mob, which immediately proclaimed

**Feb., 1849,** a republic and confiscated the property of the church. Mazzini, the head of young Italy, and Garibaldi, the captain of volunteers, were the rulers of Rome. The Pope now appealed to the French. A French army marched to the city, and de-

manded the re-establishment of the Pope. This was refused. The French besieged the insurgents. Weeks of bloody struggle elapsed before they entered the city. The

**July 3, 1849.** Republicans fled, and the old conditions were gradually restored. In Tuscany also the Democrats were successful, and drove the Grand-duke into exile. But their success lasted a few weeks only. The greatest change, however, took place in upper Italy. In Milan and Venice the people drove out the Austrian garrisons. The standard of independence was thereupon unfurled in all Lombardy. Charles Albert of Sardinia also attempted to get possession of Lombardy and Venice. He declared war upon Austria, and, supported by Italian volunteers, he pushed the Austrian troops to the northern frontiers of Italy. But his success endured for a brief season only. On the 6th of May, the octogenarian field-marshal, Radetzky, defeated him at Verona, and compelled him to seek safety in flight. The next year Charles Albert

attempted the enterprise a second time, but with no better success. In despair he gave up the crown to his son Victor Emmanuel, and fled to Portugal. The young king then made a disadvantageous peace with Austria, but he continued to pursue the path of liberal reform which his father had opened up. Venice, invincible by

*Aug. 25, 1849.* position, resisted for several months the Austrian armies, but finally internal dissensions made it the prey of its former conquerors. Thus everywhere in Italy the old order was re-established.

§ 569. The storm of revolution continued in Germany and in Hungary, and while the constitutional assembly in Frankfort was deliberating upon a new constitution, a bloody war broke out in Schleswig-Holstein. According to ancient prescriptions, the two dukedoms remained united, the succession being restricted to the male line of the House of Oldenburg. But the energetic inhabitants of the dukedoms, foreseeing the extinction of the royal house of Denmark, desired to be annexed to Germany, under their own Duke of Augustenberg. The King of Denmark was determined, on the other hand, to preserve the integrity of the Danish monarchy. The

*July, 1846.* inhabitants thereupon determined to rebel. Trusting to German help, they established a provisional government, and appealed to the Central Government at Frankfort. This appeal was answered by the appointment of a governor. The Danes then declared war. German volunteers poured into the country, expecting that the troops of the Union would soon follow. But Germany was without a navy, and the commerce of the North Sea and of the Baltic suffered greatly in the conflict. Russia and England also interfered in behalf of Denmark. The Prussian government

*Aug., 1848.* preferred diplomacy to war, and negotiated the truce of Malmö. The assembly at Frankfort accepted this truce with great reluctance, and the German republicans thereupon determined to break up the convention, and to proclaim a republic. The federal troops prevented their success, but the murder of members of the convention by the mob furnished a terrible example of the brutality of political hatred.

§ 570. This brutality revealed itself in the Austrian Empire. Hungary was struggling for independence. She desired a separate government, in which she should have no part in the military system, state debt, the tax, or the financial legislation of the rest of the empire. But the Slavonic population of Hungary was opposed to this policy of the Magyars, and Jellachich of Croatia, took the field against them. The

*Sept. 1848,* furious Magyars thereupon murdered the imperial commissioner, Lamberg. Austrian troops were then ordered into Hungary, but the Democrats of Vienna hindered their departure by furious insurrections, during which they attacked and brutally murdered the minister of war. The Emperor abandoned his capital a second time, going to Olmütz in Moravia. He then empowered Windischgrätz to restore order in Vienna. The city was besieged by Austrian soldiers, and defended for three weeks by the people. Finally it was stormed; martial law was proclaimed, and the ring-leaders of the insurrection were put to death. Among these was Robert

*Nov. 9, 1848,* Blum, a member of the National Assembly at Frankfort, and one of the principal orators of the Democratic party.

§ 571. Windischgrätz now led his victorious army into Hungary. The majority of the Frankfort Parliament thereupon determined, if possible, to separate the rest of Germany from Austria, so that each might erect a new political system, and then en-

ter into a commercial and customs alliance. Prussia was to be the head of this new German confederation. Heinrich von Gagern was the principal champion of this plan, and undertook, at the head of a new federal cabinet, to carry it into execution. But it was opposed by the Austrians, by the Catholics and by the Republicans. The Austrians opposed it because they were unwilling to be excluded from Germany, the Catholics because they begrudged the leadership to Protestant Prussia, and the Republicans because they saw in it the postponement of their final triumph. Moreover the king of Prussia had dissolved the constitutional convention that he had convened in Berlin. Worn out by the agitation and excitement, the King had determined upon a

*Nov. 1848.* decisive step. He appointed a new ministry under the presidency of Count Brandenburg, prorogued the National Assembly, fixing its next session at the city of Brandenburg, and when a great number of the deputies refused obedience and declared the collection of revenues unconstitutional, he dissolved the Assembly. At

the same time, however, he published a liberal constitution of his own, which provided for a legislative body to consist of two chambers, and to be chosen by universal suffrage.

§ 572. Austria soon followed the example of Prussia. The Emperor Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his youthful nephew, Francis Joseph. The new emperor dissolved the constitu-

*Dec. 1848.* tional assembly, proclaimed a new constitution and a new code of laws. He then proceeded to the subjugation of the Magyars, but they offered a desperate resistance. Excited by the fiery eloquence of Kossuth, and supported by Polish leaders, like Dembinski, the Hungarians drove out the Austrians and conquered all the fortified places. Görgey commanded their army with great skill.



LOUIS KOSSUTH.

Foreign volunteers strengthened their ranks. Hungarian banknotes circulated as money. The independence of Hungary was proclaimed, and a provisional govern-

*April, 1849.* ment established, which was conducted by Kossuth. The Austrian authorities soon saw that Windischgrätz was not equal to the emergency. He was recalled, and the brutal field-marshal, Haynau, appointed in his place. And at the same time Austria asked help of Russia. Hungary was now invaded from three sides. From the north Paskiewitsch entered with a Russian army; from the West, Haynau with Austrian troops; and from the south, Jellachich with his Croats. The Hungarians, however, continued the contest for several months. But quarrels between the Polish and the Magyar leaders, and between Kossuth and Görgey, destroyed their

*Aug. 1849.* strength. Görgey, who had been declared dictator, surrendered at Vilagos, while Kossuth and other leaders fled to Turkey. Many were condemned to



death, many languished away in dungeons, and many were compelled to perform the meanest drudgery of the Austrian army.

§ 573. The fall of Hungary was the conclusion of the revolutionary movement. For the National Assembly at Frankfort had already come to an end. It had proclaimed the fundamental right of the German people, and had at last framed a constitution. The party of Gagern had prevailed by a small majority. But in order to do so, had compromised with the democratic radicals. The new constitution provided that the king of Prussia should become hereditary emperor of the new Germany. A solemn deputation went to Berlin and offered the imperial dignity to the king of Prussia, if he would accept the new constitution with all its provisions. But the King gave at first an uncertain answer, and afterwards declined the proffered honor. The Prussian estates, which had been meanwhile convened, presented an address to the King, in which they urged him to accept the imperial dignity and the new constitution. The House of Representatives was thereupon dissolved, the upper chamber was adjourned, and the election laws so changed, that in future, representatives were chosen, not by universal suffrage, but by electors, divided into three classes, according to their rank and property.

*April, 1849.* tives were chosen, not by universal suffrage, but by electors, divided into three classes, according to their rank and property.

§ 574. This refusal to accept the new imperial constitution provoked new excitement throughout Germany. Insurrections and street fights took place, first in those states that refused to introduce the new government,—in Saxony, in Bavaria, and in parts of Rhenish Prussia. Next in Baden, where the government had accepted the new constitution, a mutiny occurred among the soldiers, and in consequence of this, the Grand-duke abandoned the country to the democratic and republican leaders. In the National Assembly at Frankfort, the refusal of the German governments to accept the new constitution, gave the extreme left increasing influence; the conservative deputies leaving, either voluntarily, or at the command of their governments. But the Prussian army rapidly conquered peace. Prussian troops suppressed the uprisings along the Rhine; they marched into Dresden, and freed the capital of Saxony from the insurgents; they invaded Bavaria and Baden, and suppressed the insurrection just as it threatened to enter Würtemberg. The remnant of the

*June, 1849.* National Assembly at Frankfort now removed to Stuttgart. They were spoken of as the Rump Parliament, nevertheless they established an executive council of five members, and would have supported the revolution, had not Römer driven them from the kingdom. Meanwhile the Prussians had re-established order in Baden. The republican leaders escaped to Switzerland or to America. Soon after these events, the three kings of Prussia, Hanover, and Saxony, published a new imperial constitution, which was received with great satisfaction by the moderate men of all parties. But Saxony and Hanover soon withdrew, and left Prussia to carry out the plan alone. Austria now intervened, and restored the old Congress of the Union. Prussia, for a while, refused to send a representative. Austria, and the others states, threatened to use force, and the armies were confronting each other, when, at the last moment, the conflict was averted by an agreement made between the Prussian and the Austrian

*November, 1850.* ministry. This humiliation of Prussia at Olmütz, where the ministers met, created great bitterness at Berlin, and throughout the kingdom. Various at-

*December, 1850.* tempts were made to establish a more perfect union, but all proved

fruitless. Prussia finally gave way, the Old Union was re-established, and the old Congress at Frankfort reconvened.

§ 575. Affairs in Schleswig-Holstein also turned out badly. In March, 1849, the Germans marched triumphantly to Fridericia, and beleaguered the place. But the garrison was strengthened, the German army was driven back, and the Danes pos-

*July, 1849.* sessed themselves of the intrenchments and works of the besiegers. A truce followed. Schleswig was placed under neutral authority, and occupied by Prussian and Swedish troops, and the next year, Schleswig and Holstein were handed over to Denmark. But the governor, who had been appointed by the Central Gov-

*July, 1850.* ernment at Frankfort, refused to abandon the country. Volunteers streamed in from all sides. The Danes were attacked, but the battle ended in the discomfiture of the Germans. The latter continued the war, but Austria and Prussia determined to bring it to a speedy close. They required the governor to give up his authority, and to make room for a government appointed by Denmark and the two German powers. Their wishes were fulfilled. Austrian troops occupied the land from Hamburg to Rensburg, and Schleswig was given over to the vengeance of the Danes.

§ 576. The constitutional assembly of France finished its labors in May, 1849. A democratic republic with universal suffrage, and religious and civil freedom for every citizen, with a single legislative chamber, and a president to be elected every four years, were the leading features of the new system. The new legislature contained many democrats with socialistic tendency. These called themselves *The Mountain*, and when the French government resolutely opposed socialism at home and abroad, the Mountain attempted to provoke new uprisings in Paris and Lyons. These were speedily suppressed, and many of the leaders driven into exile, or carried off to prison. The socialists now abandoned their plans of revolution, but sought to increase their power in the legislature. To prevent this the National Assembly limited the suffrage.

*May 31, 1850.* and at the same time issued new regulations for the Press. These measures brought upon the assembly the hatred of the people, and Louis Napoleon getting possession of the army, and the civil officers, prepared to overthrow the constitution, and to make himself sole ruler. He won the clergy by great concessions, and when the assembly refused to alter the constitution so as to make him eligible for a second term, Louis Napoleon, with the help of his army, dispersed the assembly, and struck down the parliamentary opposition. The Coup d' Etat was supported by St.

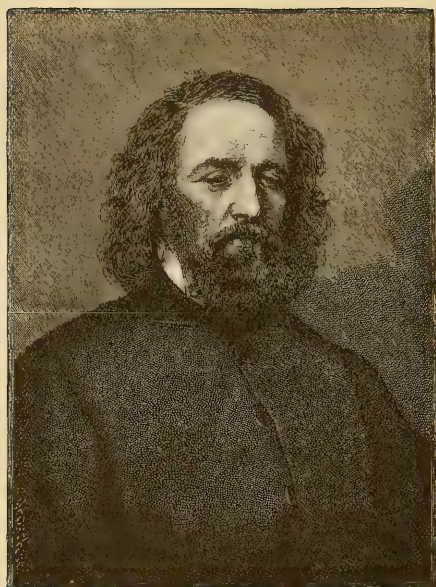
*December 2,* Arnaud, the minister of War, Morny, and Maupas, the Minister of  
*1851,* Police. Leading members of Parliament were arrested and banished.

Insurrections and barricade-fights took place in Paris, Lyons, and other cities, but were soon suppressed. The president appealed to the people, and 7,000,000 votes were cast in favor of the new government, which was built upon the plan of the First Consulate. Louis Napoleon was declared president for ten years. He was clothed with royal authority, and the legislative power was made to consist of a senate and a legislative assembly. But this was only a temporary device. The empire was proclaimed

*December 2,* the next year, the people voting for it by a still greater majority. The  
*1852.* French people, worn out and wasted by revolutions, submitted willingly to the new emperor, Napoleon III., who, with the help of police and military, established peace and order with an iron hand.

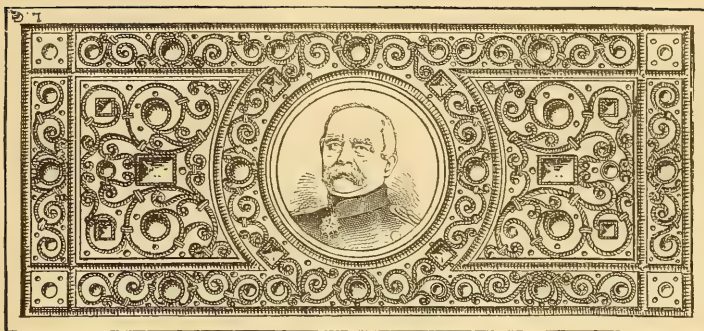






(pp. 682.)

ALFRED TENNYSON.



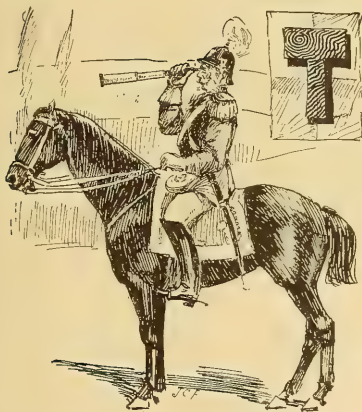
## RECENT HISTORY.

### FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE TO THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

#### I. THE WESTERN POWERS AND RUSSIA.

§ 577.

#### THE SECOND NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE.



THE establishment of the new empire in France filled the reactionary and conservative parties with new confidence. All fear of revolution seemed to vanish, and the aristocratic world abandoned itself once more to the delights of social life. The other nations at first maintained an attitude of reserve, fearing lest the third Napoleon might follow in the footsteps of his uncle, not only in his methods of internal administration, but in his foreign policy; that he might revive the Napoleonic ideas and traditions, which he had proclaimed in his writings as the true standards of progressive development. Gradually, however, they came to believe that "the empire was peace." The nephew had, to be

sure, been sorely tried by fate, and had learned to tame and to control his passions, to conceal his thoughts and his plans, or to wrap them up in ambiguous expressions and diplomatic phrases. Nevertheless "a Napoleon of peace," as Louis Phillipe liked to call himself, he was determined not to become. The "grand nation" had felt itself sorely wounded by the conduct of the citizen-king. For the pride of France was to guide the fate of Europe, to control the course of history, to start new impulses, to speak the emphatic word, to exercise in critical moments the decisive influence. And this

national pride Napoleon resolved to gratify. Recognizing the military character of the French people, he determined to give it every opportunity; and, by cherishing this love of glory, he revived the slumbering sympathies for the Bonapartist dynasty, established his throne upon strong foundations, and directed the restless and turbulent forces of the people to foreign issues. When the royal families of Europe hesitated



NAPOLÉON III.

to ally themselves in matrimony with the new ruler, Napoleon offered his hand to the Spanish beauty, Eugenie Montijo, Duchess of Teba, and in doing so he proudly de-

**Jan. 30, 1853.** clared himself a sovereign "by the grace of the people." His marriage **March 16, 1856.** and the birth of a prince three years later, were both greeted by universal applause. Napoleon announced, as the fundamental principle of his policy, the right of the people to determine their own destiny: this involved, in its application, a resort to the ballot-box in every case of political transformation. Savoy and Nice were annexed to France by a popular vote: the smaller states of Italy were incorporated into the new kingdom by the action of the people: and in Mexico the establishment of an empire was based apparently and ostentatiously upon the popular will. In the Schleswig-Holstein difficulty Napoleon urged a similar solution. Social questions were carefully studied by the Emperor. In Paris he created bakeries, subsidized by



the city, where the poorer classes could obtain bread at moderate prices. In the valley of the Rhone he provided against inundations, by dykes, and dams, and changes in the bed of the stream; and he sought everywhere to further agriculture. Splendid public buildings, erected at the expense of the Empire and the Cities, furnished employment to the masses, and at the same time created new streets and healthier dwellings. The great Exposition of art and industry, which was opened in May 1854, and commercial

**1854.** treaties with different states, greatly increased the trade of France at home and abroad. Unlike his uncle, who had fettered the commerce of Europe by the Berlin and Milan decrees, he unloosed the bonds of the French protective system, and by diminishing or abolishing tariff duties, he made an important step toward free-trade. Notwithstanding the popularity of Napoleon's rule, his enemies remained bitter and numerous. The Legitimists retired from political life, and, owing to the inactivity and the passive nature of their chief, the childless Count Chambord, their hopes for a new restoration faded away. The Orleanists were represented by Guizot, who occupied himself with his memoirs, and his religious meditations, and by Thiers, who, though brought into intimate relations with the Napoleonic family by his "History of the Consulate and the Empire," had, nevertheless, become a member of the parliamentary opposition. But the Republicans were much more stubborn in their resistance, and their hatred for the new régime. Many distinguished personalities like Ledru Rollin and Louis Blanc, like Victor Hugo and Quinet, remained abroad, as irreconcilable haters of imperialism, in England, in Belgium, in Switzerland, expecting a new overturn in affairs. And even in France, on many occasions, as for instance, at the burial of the

**1857.** poet, Béranger, there were outbreaks of anti-Bonapartist feelings and opinions. But Napoleon III. was on his guard. He had a vigilant police, a powerful army, a splendid guard, devoted generals and officers, who repaid him with fidelity and zeal for the advantageous position that he had created for them in the state and in society. A corporation law, drawn with great care, gave the government the right to examine minutely into every form of society and every kind of meeting. The severest measures against the press silenced the opposition, and placed the expression of public opinion altogether under the control of the state. The attack of the Italian,

**June 14, 1858.** Orsini, upon the life of the Emperor, gave an opportunity for even severer measures. Five districts were created, and Espinasse was made minister of war and police. In a word, the whole empire was placed under martial law; a military-police terrorism, conspicuous for arrests and deportations, held all minds imprisoned, and filled them with fear and alarm. This system of war, and of terror, was only gradually modified by conciliatory measures, and even then, the free expression of opinion in the press, and in the legislature, was greatly limited. The system of centralization, which placed all power in the hands of the officials, guided and determined every manifestation of public life, and repressed every kind of self-government, in corporations and communities.

Not until Napoleon had, through a new military organization, placed the empire in a position to maintain the attitude toward other nations, due to its rank, and to hold in check the hostile elements at home, did he enter into freer paths.

**1869.** The dismissal of Minister Rouher, the adroit champion of imperial absolutism, marks the transition to a constitutional system, with freedom of the press and of public assembly, and of actual participation by the legislative body in public

affairs. Once more the people were called upon to speak their mind at the ballot-box;

May 8, 1870. the parliamentary era was adopted by a vast majority, and Ollivier was called to head the new administration. But the greatest triumphs of Napoleon

were in the field of European politics. Supported by England, he was able to break up the Holy Alliance, and by waging successful war against Russia, and against Austria, he restored to France her military glory, and her controlling position in the affairs of the civilized world.

§ 578. The English government regarded with anxiety, at first, the restoration of the Bonapartist Dynasty, and its traditions, and accordingly, began to increase the defences of the nation. Harbors and coast-fortifications were placed in order, great additions were made to the navy and to the army, and a volunteer soldiery was organized. Indeed all the nations of the continent were angry at England, seeing that political fugitives, and exiles from all lands, found a safe refuge in the island kingdom, from which they could support the party of revolution in other European states, and from which they labored to overthrow existing governments. The British cabinet, however, by its moderation and adroitness, pacified the continental powers, without limiting in the least the ancient freedom of the soil; and as events of great importance soon directed the gaze of the world to other things, a good understanding was restored. France and England entered into an alliance, which was kept alive by repeated visits between the ruling families and by many personal attentions. This enabled the English nation to move, unhindered, along the pathway of reform and of intellectual progress, which she follows with such eagerness and success. The World's Fair, in the year 1851, the diminution or abolition of taxes, marine telegraphs and the like, greatly furthered trade and commerce. The law was everywhere enforced; the slave trade was opposed and suppressed; the rights of seamen and of the merchant marine defended; Jews were admitted to parliament, and the election laws were so changed, as to include, among the electors, nearly the entire adult male population. But England

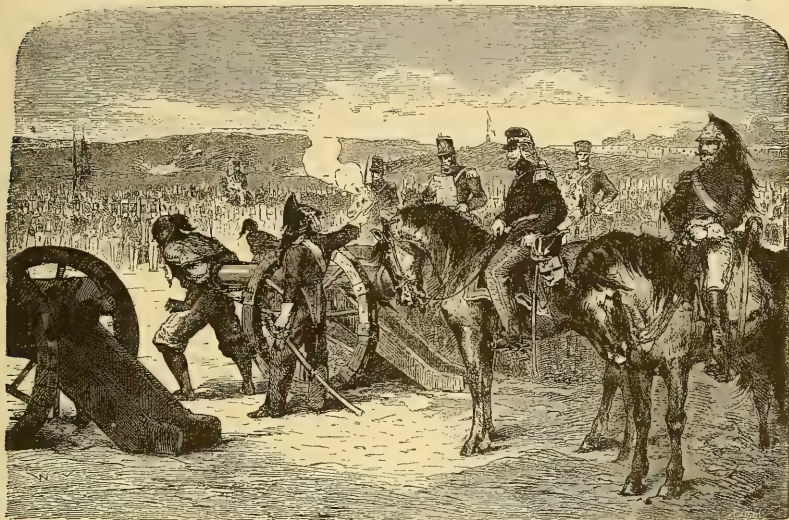


THE CRYSTAL PALACE. (World's Fair, London, 1851).

was by no means so fortunate and successful in her foreign policy. This was often one sided; the influence of the country was often frittered away in petty quarrels;

nobler policies were often sacrificed to material advantages, to the interests of trade and to national prejudice. With the United States of North America she quarreled continually, and these quarrels became so bitter that several times they threatened war. In the East Indies, the disregard of the religious usages and prejudices of the natives, the injustice and partiality of the courts, the inadequate execution of agreements, and of treaties by British officials and by British officers, provoked a rebellion in the army and a national war, which shook profoundly the Anglo-Indian Empire and brought with it most inhuman cruelties. In Delhi, the massacre of English in-

**1857.** habitants, by the rebellious Sepoys, was revenged by streams of blood. The treacherous deeds, and the horrible cruelty of Prince Nana Sahib in Cawnpore,



EXECUTION OF SEPOY LEADERS IN INDIA. (*D. Weishaupt.*)

who had murdered, in the region of the upper Ganges, all his European prisoners regardless of age or sex, were punished by horrible executions at the cannon's mouth. Yet the insurrection enhanced the power of England, and led to its firmer establishment. The courageous behavior of the European armies in Lucknow, and other places

**India Bill.** of the rebellious land, the achievements of General Havellock, and other

**1858.** commanders, gave splendid proof of their superiority and military energy; and the subjection of the Indian empire to the immediate authority of the Queen, after the rebellion was suppressed, opened a new era in the public life of the East Indies. The fidelity with which Queen Victoria supported the parliamentary system in England, united government and people in confidence and affection. Only in Ireland was there disaffection. The Fenians in America sent their agents into the Emerald Isle, to provoke an insurrection, so that the English government was compelled to suspend the habeas corpus act, and to declare martial law. The head centre, Stephens, was arrested, but made his escape. Conspiracies, conflagrations, murderous



attacks now kept the English people in continual excitement, and provoked numerous prosecutions, and exceptional police laws. Yet they were not without good results, for the liberal party made earnest efforts, by the disestablishment of the English Church in Ireland, and by a reform in the land laws, to pacify the Irish people. The land legislation, especially, was intended to set limits to the severity, and caprice, of the landlords, and to render possible, the conversion of a tenant farm into a freehold. The death of

*Dec. 14, 1861.* the Prince Consort Albert, was a heavy blow not only to the Queen, but to the country; for the prince had always exercised a conciliatory and wholesome influence upon public affairs, and upon the court circle. Victoria was so heart-broken by her loss, that she withdrew herself, for a long time, from state ceremonies. King

*Dec. 1865.* Leopold of Belgium, the prince's uncle, died four years later; just a few months after the death of the great statesman Palmerston, whose skillful

*Oct. 1865.* hand had so often guided the ship of state through storms and difficult situations, and to whose intimacy with Napoleon was especially due the maintenance of the alliance between France and England. A noteworthy episode in English history, was the brief war with Abyssinia. The tyrannical king, Theodore, cast certain missionaries and English citizens into prison, and scorned all remonstrances and requests of the London cabinet. Sir Robert Napier was sent, with an armed force, to the Red Sea, to vindicate the national honor, and the rights of nations. King Theodore

*April 1868.* himself was killed at the storming of the fortress Magdella, and the Abyssinians were glad to accept the terms of the conquerors.

§ 579.—RUSSIA AND THE ORIENTAL QUESTION.

The third Napoleon consecrated his empire with a war against the same nation which had triumphed over his uncle and the grand army; and in revenging the name of Napoleon he not only flattered French pride, but the religious prejudices of the Catholic

clergy. The Revolution had never touched the frontiers of the Russian Empire; even the Poles had submitted in silent resignation to the will of the stern monarch in St. Petersburg; Austria had invoked his help against Hungary; Prussia, was his faithful ally; the German princes regarded him as the strong tower of royal authority; the people were oppressed and discouraged, public opinion reduced to silence, the party of reaction honored and respected. Nicholas "sole autocrat of all the Russias" was thus led to resume the conquests of Katherine II., and to bring the principalities on the Danube into closer relations, by the erection of a Russian protectorate. The Turkish empire was in a shattered condition. The Russian Czar spoke of it,



LORD PALMERSTON.

in a confidential conversation, as a "sick man;" a strong blow might easily be its death-blow. The Czar especially relied upon the great discord between the Christians and Mohammedans, and upon the devotion of the Greek Christians, who looked upon him as the protector of their faith. True the Turkish government was not guilty of oppressing its Christian subjects. Christians of all confessions might live undisturbed, if they only paid their taxes. In the lands and cities south of the Danube, the Christians constituted a majority of the inhabitants. In Constantinople, and in other cities, they dwelt in particular sections. The government of the Sultan, however, was not always able to restrain the fanaticism of the Mohammedans in the outlying provinces. The Christians were sometimes attacked, robbed, outraged, murdered. Now there existed old treaties, which conceded to the Russian Czar, a certain protectorate over the Christians of Greek confession; and Nicholas, earnestly devoted to his church, and regarding its extension as his holiest duty, lost no opportunity to meddle in the religious quarrels of the Turkish kingdom. Russian agents were constantly seeking to bind their companions in the faith to the great northern power, and the Russian ambassador in Constantinople spoke as if the Czar were the rightful and acknowledged protector of Greek Christendom in the East. The Christians of Greek confession by this action of the Czar, not only secured for themselves an advantageous position with Moslems, but they came to regard themselves as the only lawful possessors of the pilgrim-stations in Palestine, especially of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem; and determined, in their arrogance, to exclude the Roman Catholic pilgrims from the sacred places, or to admit them only under humiliating conditions. Thus the Holy Chapel, at the Sepulchre often became the scene of bloody quarrels, between the confessors of the Eastern and the Western church. Now it happened that France possessed a like protectorate over the Roman Catholics of Palestine. But since the number of Greek pilgrims was much the greater, and the French government was seldom disposed to vex itself about the pilgrim monks in the Holy Land, the Greek Christians had obtained the advantage by the powerful help of Russia and by the weakness of the Sublime Porte. So Nicholas determined to declare himself the protector of all Christians in the Turkish Empire, and thus to give a legal aspect to actual conditions; but this would have so degraded the Sultan in the eyes of the Mohammedans, that if it had succeeded unchallenged, it would have precipitated the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire.

§ 580. *Events Along the Danube, and in the Baltic Sea.*—France and England resolved to preserve "the balance of power" and came at once to the support of Turkey. The Czar, however, hoped to frighten the Sultan by energetic promptness. Prince Menschikoff was sent to Constantinople as extraordinary-ambassador. Stopping at Sebastopol he reviewed the Russian fleet and army, and then proceeded to the Bosphorus. He demanded an immediate audience with the Sultan, and entered his pres-

*March 2, 1853.* ence without ceremony and even without respect. His demands were as insolent as his bearing. He demanded for the Czar a protectorate over all Greek Christians. This would have made Nicholas co-regent with the Sultan. When his demands were rejected, Menschikoff left the Turkish capital with angry threats. Three weeks later, the English and French fleets anchored in the Dardanelles to watch the

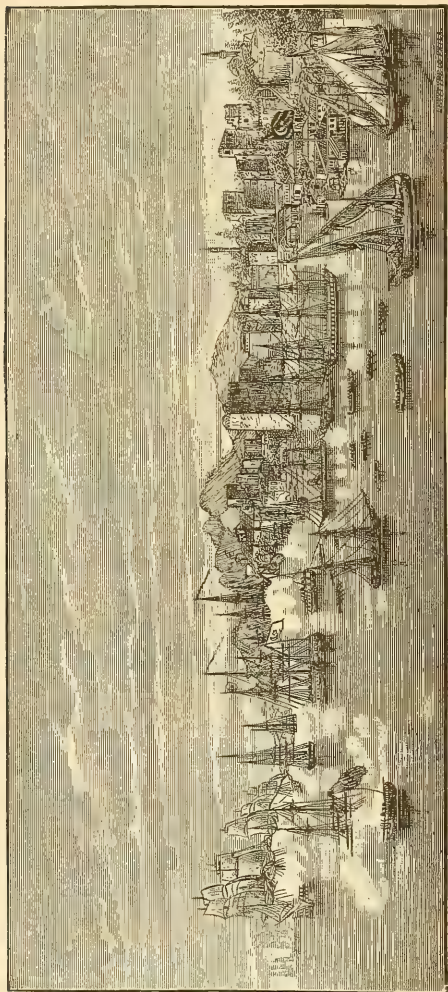
*July 2, 1853.* course of events. Nicholas thereupon commanded Prince Gortschakoff to cross the river Pruth with two divisions, and take possession of the Danubian principalities. To gain favor with the Christian population, he issued a manifest saying that he came to defend the Holy orthodox faith. Sultan Abdul Medschid replied with

a firman, in which he solemnly confirmed their rights, to the Christians of his dominion: and on the 4th of Oct. he declared war upon Russia, unless the latter immediately evacuated the Danubian principalities. At the same time Omar Pasha occu-

piated the south bank of the Danube with a Turkish army. Nicholas did not cross the river, but the Rus-

**Nov. 30, 1853.** sian fleet attacked the Turkish squadron in the harbor of Sinope, and destroyed the most of it. England and France, as the allies of Turkey, resented this outrage by declaring war upon the Russians. The war now assumed large proportions. Prince Paskiewitsch, the most famous of Russian generals, led the Russian armies to Silistria, while the English forces under Lord Raglan, and a French army under Marshal St. Arnaud appeared in the Dardanelles, and landed at Varna. At the same time Admiral

**Aug., 1854.** Charles Napier conducted an English fleet to the Baltic to attack Cronstadt and St. Petersburg. The Russians were unsuccessful at Silistria, and Paskiewitsch retired from the war. The French, in a hasty march to the interior, lost two thousand men from heat, fatigue, and cholera, and the camp at Varna was devastated by the pestilence. The expedition to the Baltic had not much more success. Bomarsund was captured, a few sailing vessels were destroyed and a few coast villages devastated.



BATTLE OF SINOPÉ.

§ 581. *The War in the Crimea.*—After the allies had lost fifteen thousand men, they determined to attack the fortified city of Sebastopol, and to destroy the Russian naval



power in the Black Sea. North of Sebastopol itself were strong fortifications intended to protect the fleet lying at anchor in the harbor, and beyond these were the heights occupied by Prince Menschikoff, with an army of thirty thousand men. These were

*Sept. 20, 1854.* attacked by the allies and were driven from their position in the Battle of the Alma. Yet Sebastopol was still impregnable. Menschikoff found time to strengthen the city from all sides, a work in which he was greatly aided by the genius of General Todleben. He further added to his inaccessibility by sinking seven great ships of war in the harbor. The allies soon perceived that they must wait for new cannon, and instruments of siege; and meanwhile must go into camp. St. Arnaud fell sick and died upon the ship that was taking him to Constantinople. He was succeeded by General Canrobert. The siege of Sebastopol now began in earnest. The first attempt to storm the works, by a united attack of army and navy, ended in a disastrous retreat of the allies. Eight

*Nov. 5, 1854.* days later the English were attacked at Balaklava, famous in poetry for the charge of the Six Hundred. On the 5th of November the battle of Inkerman was fought and resulted in favor of the allies.

§ 582. *The Winter Campaign in Front of Sebastopol.*—But the bloody battle of Inkerman effected no change in the situation. A winter campaign, for which no preparations had been made, was inevitable. Not since the Russian campaign of 1812 had an army suffered such misery as the soldiers in the Crimea during the winter of 1854 and 1855. Incessant rains converted the trenches into canals, and the tents were often filled knee-deep with water. Clothing, food, hospital supplies were lacking; men were compelled to serve often without shelter; diseases of all sorts, especially the cholera and dysentery, carried them away by scores. Sisters of Mercy and English women, particularly Florence Nightingale, made noble sacrifices to alleviate the sufferings of the troops. This misery of the allied armies encouraged the Russian Emperor to hold out. He rejected the four points which had been offered him as a basis of peace, although they were supported by Austria and Prussia. Austria, at this juncture, joined

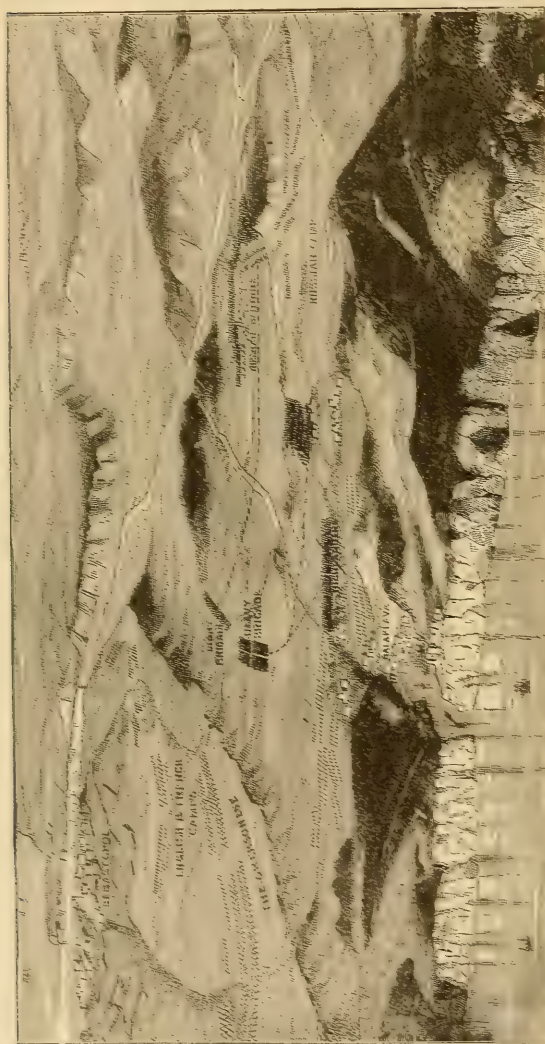
*Jan. 26, 1855.* the allies, and some weeks later Sardinia made a treaty with France and England, and sent an army of fifteen thousand men to the Crimea. Prussia and the states of the German union adhered to their neutrality. When the new year opened, the war was resumed with redoubled energy. But the Czar Nicholas was not permitted to see its close. The news that his army had been defeated by Omar Pasha so

*March 2, 1855.* wrought upon his health, that he died quite suddenly. His son and successor, Alexander II., was more inclined to a peaceful settlement of the terrible



GENERAL VON TODLEBEN.

war. Nevertheless, respect for his deceased father required him to exert all the energy of the nation to bring the struggle to an honorable conclusion. The honor of



BATTLE-FIELD OF MALAKLAVA.

France, and of the new empire, also demanded more sacrifices. So the allies approached with their trenches and their parallels nearer to the city, and Todleben created the celebrated Malakoff tower, an almost impregnable bulwark.

§ 583. *The Issue of the War.* The siege of Sebastopol lasted all summer. Meanwhile, a part of the allied fleet sailed into the sea of Azof, and devastated the harbor towns. Prince Gortschakoff succeeded Prince Menschikoff as Russian commander, and General Pelissier succeeded Canrobert in command of the French army. When Lord Raglan was carried off by the cholera, General Simpson took his place, and the Russian admiral, Nachimoff, was struck by a bullet, as he was inspecting the fortifications. Thus death mowed down the authors and leaders of the terrible war. On

the 8th

of September, after terrible slaughter, the Malakoff tower was stormed by the French, and another bulwark by the English. Gortschakoff still held a strong position upon the north side



STORMING THE MALAKOFF, (Sept. 8, 1855). (*R. Knodtel.*) (pp. 693.)



of the bay, but the siege of Sebastopol was ended. On all sides the longing was for peace. But not until the Russians had saved their honor, by capturing the Turkish fortification at Kars, was the Czar willing to accept the proposition to call the Con-

**March 30, 1856.** gress at Paris. After weeks of negotiation, the Congress agreed upon the following:

The Ottoman empire should be preserved, the navigation of the Danube made

free, the Danubian principalities should be placed under the protection of the western powers, the Christians should have equal rights with Mohammedans, under the guarantee of all the contracting powers, and the Russian naval force in the Black Sea should be limited.

Napoleon III., at the close of the Crimean war, was at the height of his power. His minister, Walewski, a natural son of the first Napoleon, conducted the Congress. All eyes were now directed to the arbiter of Europe, whose happiness at this time was in-



ALEXANDER II.

creased by the birth of a son, the child of France, given to the world by his Spanish wife Eugenie.

§ 584. *Turkey and Greece.* The Sublime Porte came out of the war exceedingly feeble. Neither Abdul Medschid, who died on the 26th of June, 1861, or his brother

**Abdul Aziz,** and successor, Abdul Aziz, could cope with the increasing anarchy and financial misery. The attempts at reform, made by Fuad Pasha, were without enduring success. The chief difficulty, however, was caused by the vassal states. Moldavia and Walachia united together to form Roumania, and chose a Moldavian nobleman, Alexander Cusa, as their leader; and when he proved a tyrant, a rebellion broke out in Bucharest, which brought to the throne a German prince. Carl

**Feb., 1866.** Anton von Hohenzollern. In Servia the conflicts between the Christians and the Turks became so bloody, that the western powers were obliged to interfere so that the sovereignty of the Sultan vanished to a shadow. The next year

**1868.** Prince Michael Obrenowitsch was murdered at Belgrade, and his

young relative, Prince Milan, was raised to the throne by the National Assembly. King Otto of Greece, in spite of his good will, had, in thirty years, been unable to acquire the affection of the people. During the Crimean war, some enthusiasts in Athens sought to excite the Greeks to take the part of Russia, but Otto, partly from lack of energy, and partly from fear of the western powers, resisted the urging of the friends of Russia. This conduct deprived him of any respect still existing for him among the Greeks. They believed that with an enterprising man on the throne their "great idea" of a new Greek empire might be realized. They therefore planned the

**1862.** overthrow of the Bavarian dynasty. Uprisings took place in Athens and Corinth, which led to the departure of the king and the erection of a provisional government. But the hope of getting a monarch from a powerful reigning house was not fulfilled. Several princes declined the offered crown. Finally a young Danish

**1863.** prince was chosen at the suggestion of England and proclaimed King of Greece, under the name of George I. But he proved as feeble as the Bavarian Otto. The English government then gave up its protectorate of the Ionic islands, and consented to their union with the Greek kingdom. But the national and religious excitement continued and provoked bloody uprisings and cruel conflicts in the island of Candia (the ancient Crete). King George, by his marriage with a Russian princess, united his people more firmly to the Russians, and trusting to Russian support, the Greeks encouraged the uprisings in Candia. Turkey now assumed a hostile attitude, and Europe was threatened once more with the Eastern question. But a conference at Paris restored the island to the Turks. The visit of the Empress Eugenie of France, the Emperor Francis Joseph of

**1869.** Austria, and the Crown Prince of Prussia, to the Suez canal, built under the direction of the French diplomatist, De Lesseps, brought the Ottoman empire a step closer to the civilized world of Europe.

§ 585. *Russia under Alexander II.* Alexander II. was crowned Czar of all the Russias in Moscow, on the 7th of September, 1856. At his coronation he issued a number of edicts of mercy. He also diminished the standing army, thereby relieving the country of taxation, and setting free much wasted energy for industrial pursuits. Commercial treaties promoted intercourse with foreign lands.

A ministry of enlightenment set about improving and increasing the schools. The oppression of the Jews and the non-Greek Christians ceased, and the administration of justice was modified by the introduction of the jury system. But his great reform was the abolition of serfdom, and the establishment of peasant communities upon a landed basis, a measure which began a complete transformation of the social, financial, and economic conditions of the empire. At the same time, the Russian power in



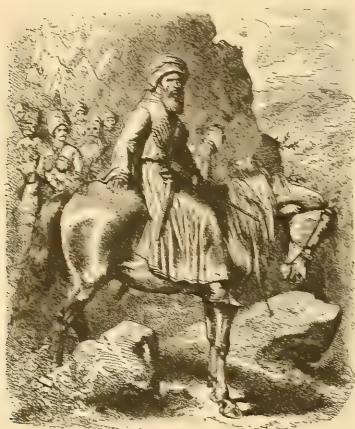
FERDINAND DE LESSEPS.

1859. Asia was strengthened and extended. Schamyl, the ancient enemy of the Czar in Circassia, was taken prisoner and held a captive, until he died twelve years afterward.

§ 586. *Parties in Poland.* Alexander II. extended his reform to Poland also, where Prince Gortschakoff, the defender of Sebastopol, took the place of the old Prince Paskiewitsch. An amnesty permitted the political fugitives to return home. The judicial and educational systems were reorganized, the University of Warsaw was made a national institution, the peasants were relieved of feudal burdens, the cities were given home government, and an economic society was founded in Warsaw. But the Poles still longed to be a nation, and the patriotic party thought the time was opportune to restore the "lost country." Russia was weakened by the Crimean war; France had declared in favor of popular suffrage. A party of national resistance was organized, and secret societies spread through the land. The peasants, mistrustful of

the Polish nobility, held apart from the movement. The chief supporters of the National party were in the old cities, especially in the capital, Warsaw, among the educated youth, who dreamed of a glorious nationality, among the priests who thought the movement favorable to their design, among the dissatisfied Jews who wished for civil equality, and among the emigrants who carried in their breasts as a holy inheritance, a consuming hatred for the destroyers of their beloved Poland.

§ 587. In February, 1861, the National party began a series of patriotic demonstrations. When the Russian military intervened, bloody conflicts ensued. The imperial government regretted these events, and entrusted to a number of distinguished citizens the maintenance of public order. At the same time, Count



SCHAMYL.

Wielopolski, a high-minded Polish patriot, was appointed minister of education and of religious affairs in Warsaw. A Polish state council also was established. But these gifts were not enough for the excited patriots. They desired independence, and the restoration of the ancient Polish republic. Processions, public meetings, the singing of the national hymn by excited crowds, still continued. The authorities dissolved the militia and the economical union, and also increased the severity of the police. But the excitement increased, and in April a conflict took place between the soldiers and the people, in which a number of Poles were killed and wounded. Warsaw was now placed by the governor in a state of siege: the demonstrations of the National party were forbidden. The movement was thereupon transferred from the streets to the churches. The national hymns were sung within the sacred walls, and heaven was besought to answer with the restoration of Poland. The death of the old Prince Czartoryski, the Nestor of the Polish patriots in 1831, was solemnized in Paris by a





WOJCIECH

THE POLISH OUTBREAK IN 1861—SCENE IN WARSAW.

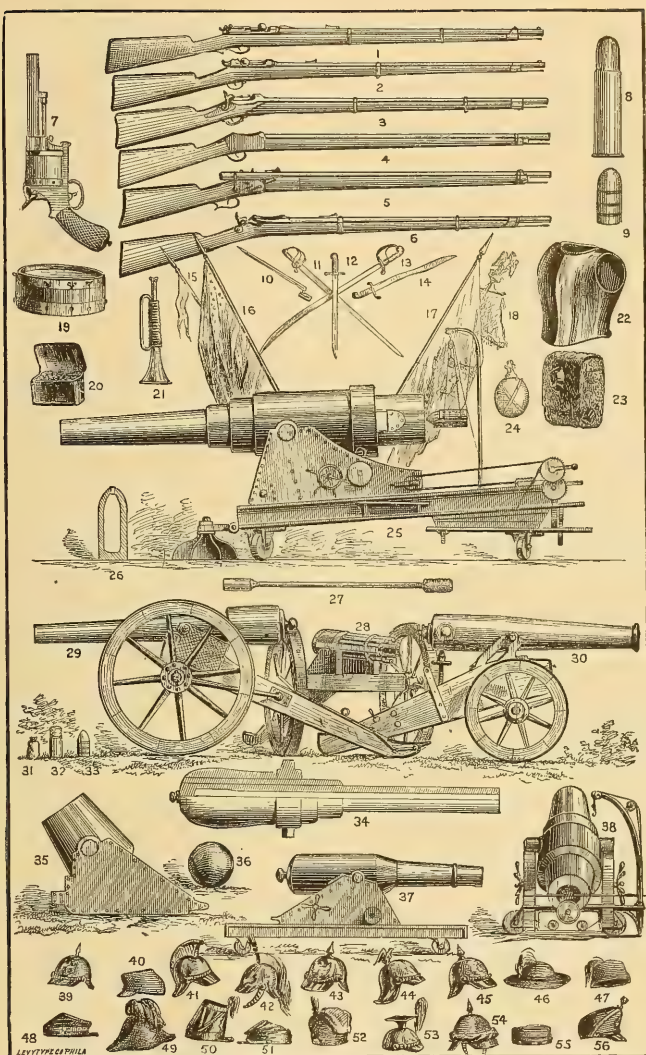
great procession and elaborate ceremonies. The state of siege was now extended by the governor over all Poland. The singing of the national hymn was forbidden, and when the churches were filled with the crowds that came to mourn for Kosciusko, the people were dispersed at the point of the bayonet, and the Bishop, with a number of well-known citizens, was sent to prison. But the Emperor hoped to overcome the movement by reforms and conciliation. He named his brother, the Grand-duke Con-

*June, 1862.* stantine, as viceroy of Poland, and appointed Wielopolski chief of the civil power. But the population of the city was under the influence of a secret conspiracy; the Grand-duke and Count Wielopolski were repeatedly assailed by assassins.

§ 588. The Russian government now determined upon a conscription. On the night of the 14th of January, soldiers entered all the houses of Warsaw, and carried off the young men for military service. The blow was so unexpected, that few had escaped. The revolutionary party collected the fugitives and the sympathizers with the patriotic fraternities, in forests and remote places, and organized a popular war against the

*1863.* Russians. They attacked the imperial troops at different places, and in order to win the peasants for their cause, the provisional government issued a proclamation, in which they promised to secure to the peasants the freeholds of their farms. The watch-word was given for another conflict between the Poles and the Russians. In England and in France the old sympathies for the outraged people were revived, and public opinion declared in unmistakable terms in their favor. European diplomacy developed great activity in favor of Poland, but the sympathies of the western nations did not go beyond these diplomatic notes. Meanwhile the Russian arms were victorious. The proclamation of the provisional government failed to influence the peasants. Instead of a national army, the insurgents had only disordered groups to lead against the Russians. Every band was under a separate leader. General Mieroslawski, the well-known adventurer of 1848 and 1849, had returned to his native country, and been named dictator; but he was defeated by the Russians, fled across the Prussian frontiers, and then basely published attacks upon his compatriots. Langiewicz was nobler, and for a while more successful. But he too was soon compelled to fly. Nevertheless, the provisional government was able to keep the kingdom for a long time insecure, and supported by the nobility, by the inhabitants of the cities, and by the clergy, to establish a reign of terror. The members of this government, whom the Russians tried in vain to discover, astonished the world with their activity and their organization. They issued ordinances and laws; they collected taxes; they erected revolutionary tribunals in Warsaw and in the provincial cities. Two governments confronted each other, a government of open violence, and a government of secret terror. But every supply of arms, ammunition, and men, was cut off by the watch maintained upon the Prussian and Austrian frontiers.

§ 589. The cabinet at St. Petersburg declined all foreign intervention, and rejected the proposition of the Western powers for a truce. Wielopolski was removed, and General Berg was placed in charge at Warsaw. The Emperor Napoleon made another attempt to convene a European congress, but without avail. Russia proceeded with energetic violence; resistance was beaten down; the activity of the provisional government repressed; the voices of the patriots silenced. The Czar then determined to unite the Polish peasantry more firmly to Russia, by giving them free-hold rights



ARMS AND ARMOR OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

- |                         |                                     |                                       |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Needle Gun.          | 13. Cavalry Sabre.                  | 28. Gatling Gun.                      |
| 2. Chassepot.           | 14. Sabre Bayonet.                  | 29. Parrott Gun.                      |
| 3. Springfield Rifle.   | 15, 16, 17, 18. Standards.          | 30. Siege Gun.                        |
| 4. Martini-Henry Rifle. | 19. Drum.                           | 31, 32, 33. Artillery Cartridges.     |
| 5. Vetterlin Gun.       | 20. Cartridge Box.                  | 34. Armstrong Gun.                    |
| 6. Werndl Rifle.        | 21. Trumpet.                        | 35. Mortar.                           |
| 7. Revolver.            | 22. Cuirass.                        | 36. Round Shot.                       |
| 8. Cartridge and Ball.  | 23. Knapsack.                       | 37. Sea-Coast Gun.                    |
| 9. Rifle Ball.          | 24. Canteen.                        | 38. Krupp Mortar and Carriage.        |
| 10. Bayonet.            | 25. Krupp 12-inch Gun and Carriage. | 39 to 56. Modern Military Caps, Hats, |
| 11. Officer's Sword.    | 26. Section of Conical Steel Shot.  | and Helmets.                          |
| 12. Saber.              | 27. Ramrod and Wiper.               |                                       |



in their property, and on the other hand, to weaken the nobility and the cities by rooting out the Polish language, by suppressing national peculiarities, and by transplanting the old families to other regions of the empire. Church property also was con-

<sup>1865.</sup> fiscated, the independence of the Catholic church thus broken, and the Polish clergy stabbed to the heart. The Pope protested, and diplomatic relations between St. Petersburg and Rome were broken off. This Polish uprising chilled the desire of Alexander to reform his people and his empire, and the attempts to assassinate him, made by Russians and by Poles, rendered his life sombre and unhappy, while they led to further repression of progressive movements.

<sup>1867.</sup>

## 2. GERMANY AND THE TWO GREAT GERMAN POWERS.

§ 590. *The German Union.*—When the revolution had been suppressed throughout Germany, a reaction took place in church and state. The Jesuits began their itinerant preaching, the hierarchy concluded with each of the governments a CONCORDAT. Church unions sprang up, and missions were preached in all corners of the land. Princes and nobles were eager to overthrow or to transform the new institutions, that the revolution had established. Liberal cabinets gave way to conservatives. Constitutions were purified of their democratic elements, and the daily journals were regulated by laws and severe restrictions. Political assemblies were either suppressed or strictly watched. And when the particular governments lacked the will or the strength to arrest political progress, the Congress of the Union interfered. A Central Commission of the Union was charged with the decision of all constitutional

<sup>1854.</sup> difficulties, and this commission established a *Press Law* for all the states of the Union. In this way, some constitutional provisions were wholly set aside in many states, as in Hesse Cassel, Homburg, and Lippe-Detmold, while others were modified or rendered nugatory by bold revision. In some states, as in Hanover and Mecklenburg, the feudal conditions of an antiquated time were restored in the interests of the landed gentry. All this excited great indignation throughout Germany. But the Congress of the Union was supported, in this reactionary activity, by the two great German powers; although it was no secret, that the humiliating day of Olmütz had made a great gulf between Prussia and Austria. The Restoration of the Congress of the Union had been the work of Austria. Prussia had consented only with reluctance. But the majority of the other states stood upon Austria's side. And thus it happened, that for a decade, the German people struggled in vain against the reaction, hoping to save a few remnants of their constitutional rights and liberties. The people desired to be saved from religious and social ruin; they desired a political system, in which, notwithstanding the variety of dialects and of states, the German people might act as a whole, and take a position in European politics, corresponding to their greatness, their power, and their civilization.

The *National Union* labored to unite with Prussia, and took the imperial constitution of 1849 as the goal of its efforts, while the *Reform Union* worked for an organization, in which Austria would find a place with Germany and Prussia. The Prussian Government, it is true, showed little favor to the National Union; but the German princes and rulers encouraged the Reform Union, because they feared more from Prussia than from Austria. When the Emperor Francis Joseph had given a constitution to his own people, he thought it a favorable moment to assemble all the Ger-

man monarchs at Frankfort, to deliberate upon a reform of the German Union. The Prussian king was at that time in bitter conflict with his House of Representatives. But all the other reigning princes accepted the Austrian invitation. The king of

**1863.** Prussia remained away, the Grand-duke of Baden refused to sign the proposals of reform, and the people refused to be satisfied with the proposed assembly of notables, instead of a national parliament. The only result of the assembly of princes was to make plain that even the rulers had lost faith in the Congress of the Union, and that they were satisfied that some concessions must be made to satisfy the desire of unity so prevalent among the German people. Attempts, too, were made to establish a uniform financial system, uniform weights and measures, and a better mail service. But the great celebration of 1859, in honor of the national poet Schiller, was a striking proof of the feeling of brotherhood and of nationality that had taken possession of all sections of the German family. The hour of redemption was drawing nigh.

§ 591. *Austria.*—The struggle of 1848 and 1849 had left the House of Hapsburg stronger than before. The Congress of the Union had been raised from the dead, and the struggle of the German people for a nobler political life had been strangled. Yet not without great sacrifices. The maintainance of a powerful army, the great expenses for police and administration had increased the imperial debt, until all the gold and silver disappeared from daily life, and only paper was in circulation. The imperial credit was ruined. Expenses exceeded revenues by many millions. As everywhere else in Germany, so here too, the reactionary party was determined to bury the achievements of the revolution. By an imperial decree, the new constitution was abolished, and the absolute monarchy restored. The different races had too little sympathy with each other to care for a form of government which they neither understood nor desired, and of whose operations they had no experience. But their failure to rebel was no proof of their content. A Hungarian attempted to assassinate the

**1853.** Emperor. The ancient Hungarian crown, with the crown-jewels, had been discovered and restored to the House of Hapsburg. But it was easier to restore the crown than to conciliate the people. The exiled patriots were too numerous for quiet to reign among their friends. Resistance often reached such a pitch, that another insurrection seemed imminent. In other lands, Austria met with resistance, but acted with greater wisdom, for in these the Emperor introduced great reforms, especially in relieving the peasants from the burdens upon their holdings. This produced a social revolution which the government presided over, with many heavy sacrifices, and although the Catholic prelates brought about a CONCORDAT with the Pope, and were able to maintain it, yet even they were compelled to concede to the Protestants of both confessions, civil equality with the Catholics, and the exercise of their faith and public worship. But absolute government was no longer possible in Austria. And when the Italian war revealed the utter rottenness of the system, it became clear that only a political regeneration could save the empire from ruin. Finally, after many precious months were wasted in experiments, it was determined to call the people to a share in the making of their laws and to erect a parliamentary system. Austria be-

**1861.** came a constitutional state in Feb. 1861. Hungary received back her old organization, so far as this was compatible with the new system. The other lands were granted legislatures of their own for home affairs, while the interests, common

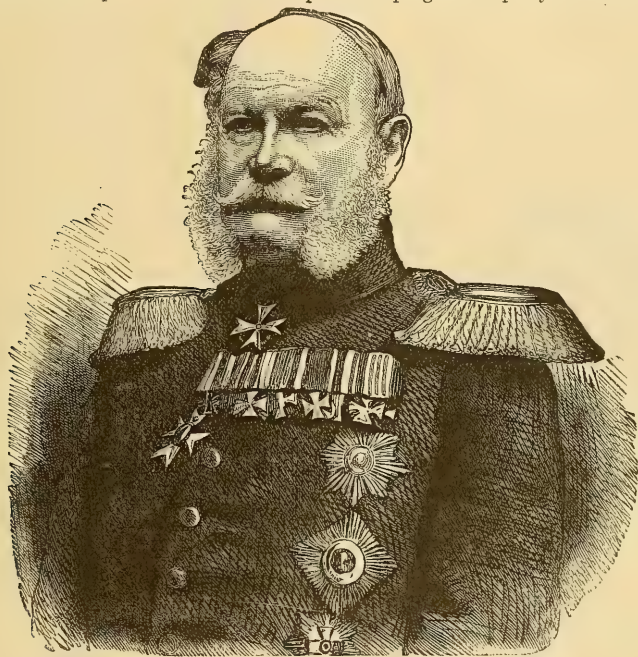
to all, were to be cared for by an IMPERIAL COUNCIL chosen partly by the emperor and partly by these local legislatures. But it required all the energy of Schmerling, the Prime-minister, to break the resistance of the aristocracy. In Hungary and in Austria, in Bohemia, Galicia, and other provinces there was a violent opposition to the constitution, so that the elections to the imperial council were incomplete. In Hungary the opposition bordered upon anarchy and terrorism. Finally it was agreed to make two imperial councils, a *smaller* and a *larger council*,—the smaller for the German-Slavonic lands, the larger to include the Hungarians also. \* But even in this form, the imperial constitution was but partially introduced. The Slavs and Magyars opposed an arrangement that threatened to give the superiority to the German element in the empire.

§ 592. *Prussia.* Frederick William IV., took an oath to maintain the constitution, on the 6th of February, 1850. His reluctance was manifest in all his speeches, and this reluctance influenced all his government. Although unwilling to restore the conduct of affairs to the feudal aristocracy, he changed and interpreted so much away, that the constitution shrank to an impotent bit of history, the ambiguous expressions of which were capable of many interpretations. In one question only, did Prussia pursue a successful and popular policy, namely, in the reorganization of the customs union which, in spite of the intrigues of Austria and her allies, was renewed for twelve years more. Encouraged by the peaceful attitude of the French emperor, Manteuffel, the Prussian minister, pushed boldly forward in the path of reaction. The landed-gentry came to the front of political life, and making alliances with the military and the bureaucracy, they sought to restore the old absolutism and the old privileges of rank. The democracy was discouraged. The liberal constitutional party sought to justify its confidence in liberal institutions by correct behavior. During the Crimean war, the Berlin cabinet refused to join the alliance against "the Czar of all the Russias," although the enthusiasm for Russia was hardly strong enough to make them openly take his side. Prussia thus remained without influence upon the course of European events. It was an act of courtesy only to invite her to send a representative to the Congress of Paris. A few months after the peace, Prussia was greatly disturbed by an uprising in Neuenburg, in Switzerland. This little territory belonged to the king of Prussia. Through the mediation of Napoleon, the difficulty was adjusted, and the king of Prussia surrendered his claim. This was the last political act of the brilliant, but unhappy Frederick William IV. The revolutions of 1848 had embittered his life; the humiliation of Russia, and the death of the Emperor Nicholas increased his gloom; the last dike against the revolutionary deluge seemed to be swept away. In October, 1857, it was plain that the king's reason was affected. His brother, William, became regent in October, 1858, a regency that was confirmed two weeks later by both Houses of Parliament. Frederick William then journeyed to Italy, but the outbreak of the Italian war drove him home. The next year he lost consciousness entirely, and on the 2nd of January, 1861, he expired.

§ 593. *The New Era.* Meanwhile the Prince regent had conducted the government in a liberal manner. The choice of his ministers, the majority of whom were known as progressive men, furnished a pledge that a new era had begun in the constitutional history of Prussia. Prince Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, who was minister



**William I.** president, being a Catholic, reconciled the members of his confession to the new order of things, while Count Schwerin had the confidence of the entire people. Prince William had not the brilliant qualities of his brother, nor his romantic ideas, but he was practical, straightforward, energetic, and invincibly honest. The press, the legislative chambers, every form of society, revealed the influence of the change. A progressive party was formed, and it was hoped that the upper House would soon be made more efficient and more liberal. But when the Prince Regent ascended the throne as King William I., a conflict took place between the all-powerful progressive party and the new mon-



WILLIAM I.

arch. The progressives desired a parliamentary government like that of England. This, however, was in conflict with the traditions of the House of Hohenzollern. The King believed himself to have received his crown as a trust from Almighty God, for which he was indeed responsible, but not to any man-chosen parliament. The party of progress refused to further the reorganization of the army, upon which the King's heart was set. This conflict of the ruler with his legislature produced great excitement, which was increased to the highest pitch, when a fanatical student, Oscar Becker, attempted to assassinate the king in Baden-Baden. At his solemn coronation in Königsberg, on the 18th of October, 1861, King William declared, with

**July 13, 1861.** ment, which was increased to the highest pitch, when a fanatical student, Oscar Becker, attempted to assassinate the king in Baden-Baden. At his solemn coronation in Königsberg, on the 18th of October, 1861, King William declared, with

great emphasis, that "the rulers of Prussia received their crown from God, and that the Houses of Parliament were called to be his counsellors." In March, 1862, the

**March, 1862.** House of Representatives demanded an itemized budget, and the conflict became so sharp that the ministry resigned, and the House was dissolved. But

**September, 1862.** the new House was more radical than its predecessor. At this juncture

**Von Bismarck** Otto Von Bismarck was called to the ministry. The lower House

**Born** persisted in its refusal to confirm the King's plans, and was conse-

**April 1, 1815.** quently adjourned from time to time, and then dissolved. Bismarck's appointment was looked upon as a declaration of war. His hatred of the radicals was well-known. His contempt of phrases and of rhetoric was undisguised, and as yet he had given no proof of his extraordinary genius, and no indication of his far-reaching plans. The conflict continued, and became exceedingly bitter. Government and legislature were unreconciled when the war with Austria broke out, and the glorious achievements of the Prussian army created a second new era, in which the old quarrel was completely swallowed up.

§ 594. *Schleswig-Holstein.* The ancient order of succession in Schleswig-Holstein, restricted it to the first born of the male line. This order was violated by the London treaty of 1852, which gave the sovereignty of these provinces to the Danish prince, Christian von Sonderburg-Glücksburg.



PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK.  
(Fr. Skarbina.)

As this prince was to be the successor of the reigning king, Frederick VII. of Denmark, the arrangement secured the integrity of the Danish monarchy. The estates of Schleswig-Holstein rejected this arrangement at the instance of the lawful heir, the Prince of Augustenburg. This created, for the provinces, a state of war. They were occupied by Danish troops, while the sons of the people were transferred to Danish gar-

**1854-1855.**

risons. During the period of reaction, the Danish government attempted to establish a new constitution that would have made army and navy, custom houses, post-offices and money all Danish.

But the German feeling in the two provinces rebelled at this arrangement, and appealed to Prussia and Austria. The German powers thereupon declared that the new constitution was not valid for Holstein and Lauenburg. Denmark struggled against this decision, but when the Congress of the German Union threatened war, Denmark

**Nov. 1858.** declared the constitution set aside for Holstein and Lauenburg, but valid throughout Schleswig; and also that the ministers were responsible to the king only in what related to Holstein. By this arrangement, Schleswig was really incorporated into Denmark. Holstein refused to accept the separate parliament that was

**March, 1858.** offered her, and demanded her old right of union with Schleswig. The Danes refused to accept this plan. A diplomatic war began, but the Danes could

**Oct. 1.** neither be persuaded nor alarmed. Finally the Congress of the German Union determined upon the use of force.

§ 595. Just at the moment when the Danish king had determined upon the **Nov. 15, 1863.** complete absorption of Schleswig into Denmark, death removed him and

the "protocol prince," as he was called, Prince von Sonderburg-Glücksburg, ascended the Danish throne as Christian IX. Frederick of Augustenburg at the same moment proclaimed himself Frederick VIII., Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, and prepared to defend his rights. The German people supported him with all their strength. The excitement was intense, and all eyes were directed to Frankfort, awaiting the action of the Congress of the Union. Early in December, the troops of Saxony and Hanover

**Dec. 2, 1863.** crossed the Elbe to occupy Holstein and Lauenburg. The Danes withdrew, and as they retired, the people proclaimed their attachment to Duke Frederick of Augustenburg. On the 27th of Dec., at a great assembly of the people held at Elmshorn, he was solemnly declared to be their duke. Hearing this, the Prince left Gotha and hastened to Kiel, where he was received with great enthusiasm; but he refrained from every act of sovereignty, awaiting the action of the German Union. Meanwhile the Danes had determined to fight for Schleswig. Relying upon England, they expected to win. But Austria and Prussia

now joined hands, and demanded the abolition of the November constitution, the cause of all the trouble. Christian IX. rejected these demands. The German powers thereupon refused to be bound by the London treaty, and marched into Schleswig, caring neither for the protest of the German Union or the remonstrance of the English ministry.

**1864.** In January, 1864, the troops of Prussia and Austria, under Field-marshal Wrangel, entered Holstein. The Prussians, under the command of Prince Frederick Carl, and the Austrians led by Gen. Gablenz. The Danish commander, De Meza, determined to give up Schleswig and to retire to the strong entrenchment at Düppel. Wrangel now ordered the Prussian main army, under Prince Frederick Charles to march against Düppel, and the Austrian army to occupy Schleswig. The Danes exerted themselves with unceasing energy to convert Düppel into a second Sebastopol. The Prussians determined to

**April, 18, 1864.** take the works by storm. On the 18th of April, after a terrible day, in which the Prussians lost twelve hundred men, including seventy officers, the works were in Prussian hands.

The fall of Düppel decided the war. The Danes made no further attempt to defend the main land. On the 28th of April they embarked, during the night, in great haste and Wrangel was in full possession of the provinces. In May a conference was convened in London, but it led to no result. The war was renewed, but as England refused to assist the Danes, it ended disastrously for Denmark. Prince Frederick

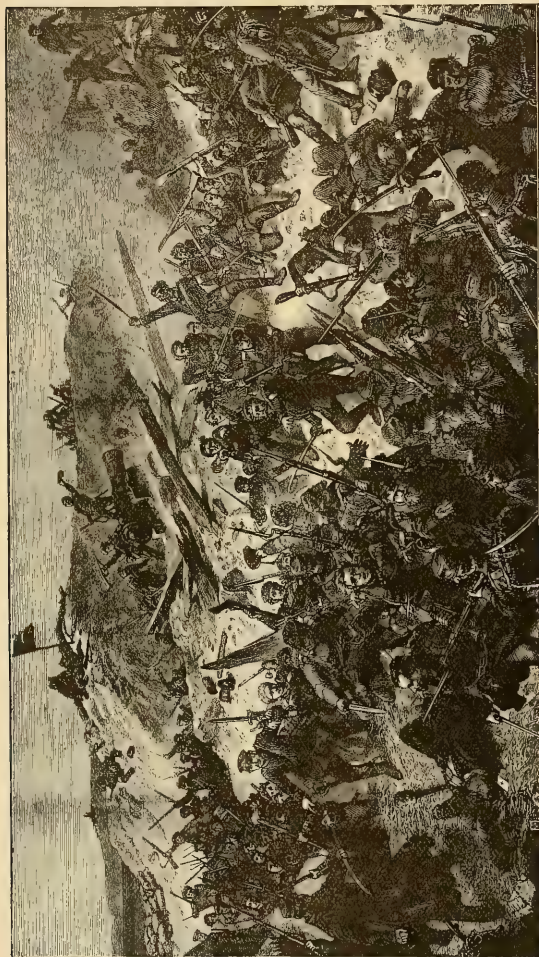
**June, 28-29, 1864.** Carl drove them from Alsens. The united armies then forced them to abandon Jutland. The Danish fleet was captured by the Austrians, and these disasters broke the obstinate spirit of the Danes. King Christian IX., opened direct negotiation with Austria and Prussia. The German Union was not con-



PRINCE FREDERICK CHARLES OF PRUSSIA.



sulted. The result was a suspicion that Prussia intended to annex the dukedoms, and the treaty of Vienna did not allay these suspicions. It provided that the King of



STORMING THE DÜPPEL REDOUBTS.

Denmark should cede all his rights to Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg, in favor of the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria. It was soon apparent that Prussia did not intend to give over the conquered country to the Prince of Augustenburg. Other claimants to the throne appeared, and the crown-jurists in Berlin declared that **1864.** all rights

**Aug. 14, 1865.** had been extinguished by the treaty of Vienna. At Gastein, Austria and Prussia agreed to continue the joint occupation; Schleswig being governed by Prussia, and Holstein by Austria, while Lauenburg should pass to the Prussian king, for the sum of two and a half million thalers. This agreement created great dissatisfaction in Germany, as it contained the germs of new conflicts, and created an impossible situation.

### 3. THE FOUNDING OF THE ITALIAN KINGDOM.

§ 596. Sardinia had twice attempted in vain the liberation of Italy. Radetzky's victories re-established the power of Austria, and the old oppression of the political and intellectual life of the Italian people. Lombardy was filled with soldiers, and held

down by powerful fortifications, and Austria stretched out a helping hand to the tyrannical princes of Modena and Parma. The constitution of Tuscany was set aside, and Ferdinand II., king of Naples and Sicily, harried his people with soldiers and with taxes to an incredible degree. Austria protected the Pope also, garrisoning for him the northern part of his territory, and conciliated the clergy with a favorable *concordat*. To break the Austrian power was the eager longing of king Victor Emmanuel, a man of courage and of strong national feeling. Fortunately for him, he was guided by his minister, the great statesman Camillo Cavour. Austria put her trust in the power of bayonets, the influence of the clergy, and the terrors of the police. Sardinia, on the other hand, weakened the power of the clergy by liberal and tolerant laws, created a free political life within her dominion, strengthened her armies, and sought to win the favor of the Italian people. Cavour advised participation in the Crimean war, in order to win the support of England and of France, and especially to gain a hearing at the Congress of Paris. He presented to the Congress a memorial, in which he showed that there could be no enduring peace in Europe until the independence of Italy was recognized, the tyranny in Naples brought to an end, and Austria compelled to give a liberal constitution to Lombardy and Venice. These demands constituted the future program of the Italian party of progress. Unions were formed everywhere to promote national unity. The most active of these, was the *National Union*, which was founded by Manin and Pallavicino. Garibaldi now returned to Italy, and sought a home with his family in the little island of Caprera. After many wanderings and vicissitudes, he came back to offer his help to the National Union. Mazzini and his friends pursued more extended plans, but they had no disposition to hinder the work of Cavour and Garibaldi. The purpose of the National Union was to drive out the foreigner, and to unite Italy under the House of Savoy. A mighty excitement soon took possession of the people. The Duke of Parma was murdered on the open street, armed bands marched through Naples, while anarchy and despotism struggled with each other for the possession of Sicily. The Sardinian government had no choice. It must unfurl boldly the banner of Italian independence, and accept the fight with Austria. But the past taught king Victor Emmanuel that he needed a mightier ally than Garibaldi and his Italian volunteers.

§ 597. *Magenta*. Orsini's attempt to assassinate the Emperor Napoleon, had a noteworthy influence upon Italian affairs. Orsini confessed that he sought the French ruler's life, simply because he would not save Italy. He had become a hindrance to her freedom, rather than a help. In his earlier days, the Emperor had doubtless been in confidential relations with the Italian patriots, and was perhaps himself a member of the Italian secret society. He was now considered a traitor by his former companions.

*Aug. 5, 1858.* The same year he had an interview with Count Cavour at Plombières. Plans were considered for the emancipation of Italy; and the marriage of prince Napoleon Bonaparte with the princess Clothilde, the youthful daughter of Victor Emmanuel, was to create a firm bond between the two families. The speech of the Emperor to the Austrian ambassador, at his New Year's reception, and the words of the Italian king, at the opening of Parliament at Turin, indicated in plain words that Sardinia would be no longer deaf to the cries of the rest of Italy. The neutral powers sought a pacific solution of the difficulty, but Austria sent an *ultimatum* to the king of Sardinia, requiring him to reduce his army to a peace footing within three days. When

this demand was refused, the Austrian Field-marshal, Gyulai, was ordered to cross the Ticino. This gave the French emperor an opportunity to intervene as the protector of his ally, Victor Emmanuel. Gyulai was dilatory and inactive, so that Sardinia had ample time to collect her troops about the fortified Alessandria, and to form a junction with the French army. In May, Napoleon himself appeared in Italy, and although he entrusted the management of the campaign to his experienced generals, Canrobert, Niel, Mac Mahon, and others, yet his presence was a great inspiration for his soldiers. The Austrian commander was utterly incompetent. He had lost his opportunity, and must now act on the defensive. After a bloody battle at Buffalora, the Austrians were utterly defeated in the battle of Magenta. The Austrian soldiers fought with great bravery, although they suffered greatly from the scandalous robbery of the contractors, who furnished their supplies. The loss of Magenta

**May, 1859.** brought with it the loss of all Lombardy. Milan was evacuated by Gyulai, and on the 18th of June, Napoleon entered the city, amid the acclamations of the people, with Victor Emmanuel at his side. The Austrians took up a new position on the Mincio, where they were supported by the famous quadrangle, consisting of four strongly fortified cities, Peschiera, Mantua, Verona, Legnago.

§ 598. *Solferino.* These disasters to Austria brought about the overthrow of several Italian governments. Duke Leopold of Tuscany was abandoned by his army and his civil servants, and compelled to leave Florence. A provisional government, under the protectorate of Victor Emmanuel, was immediately established. The Duchess Louisa of Parma, with her young son, hastened to Switzerland, and the Duke of Modena sought protection in the Austrian camp. Everywhere the Italian flag was unfurled, and annexation to Sardinia was desired. In Germany these events created great excitement. Austria endeavored to obtain the support of Prussia and the other members of the German Union. The war now raging along the Po might soon be transferred to the Rhine. For a time it looked as if public opinion would carry the German states to the Austrian side. War preparations were made; the garrisons were increased, Prussia gradually placed her entire army upon a war footing. But many circumstances combined to dampen this war-like enthusiasm. Russia, angry at Austria for her conduct in the Crimean war, used her influence to withhold the Germans from the strife. England declared, that in case of a war, she would not protect the German merchant ships. The liberal party was not inclined to strengthen absolutism and clerical dominion; and it soon appeared that the German troops generally were in no condition for a war. The Prussian cabinet had not yet forgiven Olmütz. Prussia's chief duty was to protect herself, and to be ready for possible emergencies; and she lost all inclination to take part in the war, after France had given the assurance that the war would be localized; *i. e.* confined to Italy. Austria however determined to try once more the fortune of battle. The Emperor Francis Joseph, took the field in person, but with no better success. The Emperor abandoned the "quadrangle" and crossed the Mincio, but was defeated at Solferino with great loss, although the Austrians were able to withdraw in good order from the field.

§ 599. *The Peace of Villa Franca.* The French people were wild with enthusiasm for their victorious emperor, yet his position was one of difficulty and of danger. The French army had suffered greatly in the Italian campaign; the excitement in



Germany made a hostile movement upon the Rhine quite probable. The Austrians, moreover, were still in possession of the great quadrangle. True, the Emperor Napoleon had said, "Italy free to the Adria," but to realize this watchword might hazard all his fortunes. The two emperors therefore ar-

**July 8, 1850.** ranged a peace. Austria abandoned Lombardy to the line of the quadrangle, that is to a line drawn from Peschiera to Mantua; Italy was to form a confederacy under the presidency of the Pope; the exiled princes might return, if permitted to do so freely by their subjects. But when the treaty of

**Nov. 10, 1860.** peace came to be made at Zürich, only the first of these conditions was maintained. Lombardy passed to the king of Sardinia, while Savoy with Nice, was ceded to France. But the people of Modena, Parma and Tuscany refused to accept their former rulers, and were annexed to Sardinia. Even Bologna renounced the rule

of the Pope, and sought protection from Victor Emmanuel. Switzerland might

NAPOLÉON III. IN BATTLE OF SOLFERINO. (*E. Meissonier.*)



protest and the Pope might excommunicate, but things took their own course. Instead of the Italian confederation, with the Pope at its head, Europe was compelled to recognize a kingdom of Italy, under the House of Savoy.

§ 600. *Garibaldi.* The national and the revolutionary forces in Italy were now united for a common aim, the formation of "One Italy." The territory of Rome was protected from hostile attack by French troops, but the kingdom of Naples and of Sicily was without support. Francis II., the young and inexperienced son of the

*Ferdinand II.*, tyrannical Ferdinand II., occupied the throne, and had under his †*May 22, 1859.* command a well-disciplined army of one hundred and fifty thousand men. But the tyranny of the Government, which opposed stubbornly all reform, had



LANDING OF GARIBALDI AT MARSALA. (*G. Broling.*)

prepared the ground for the secret societies; and the withdrawal of the Swiss mercenaries robbed the throne of its strongest support, at the very moment when Mazzini  
1860. and Garibaldi joined hands for their daring enterprise. The first uprisings were in Messina and Palermo. In May Garibaldi landed with a few thousand armed men at Marsala. He gathered about him the scattered volunteers, declared himself dictator in the name of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy, and marched to the capital, Palermo. The population rose as one man, and supported the coming patriots. General Lanza, who was in command of the citadel, opened a heavy fire, destroying a part of the city; but the action of the English admiral compelled him to yield. The monarchy was now shaken to its foundation, and the glory of Garibaldi spread over

**June 25, 1860.** the world. The King restored the former constitution, called about him a liberal ministry, proclaimed an amnesty, and sought an alliance with Sardinia. But it was too late. Wherever Garibaldi appeared, the land broke into flames. Six

**July 18.** weeks after the taking of Palermo, the dictator marched to Messina. The city was soon in his possession. He then landed upon the mainland with five

**Aug. 21, 1860.** thousand men. The garrison at Reggio at once surrendered the city and the castle. Everywhere the soldiers disbanded, and the cities and provinces formed provisional governments. Garibaldi marched triumphantly through the South, nowhere meeting resistance. On the 6th of September, Francis II. abandoned his cap-

**Sept. 7.** ital, and retired to Capua; and on the next day, Garibaldi marched into Naples, amid the acclamations of the delighted population. The Pope fared no better than the King. Garibaldi declared that he would proclaim the kingdom of Italy in its natural capital. The Pope's friends, in the Catholic lands of Europe, exhausted every means to save the temporal power of the Pope, but the patriotic enthusiasm of the Italian people was more powerful than the cries of the clericals. General Lamoricière was induced to take command of the papal army, but when the Sardinian troops, under General Cialdini, reached the frontiers of the Pope's dominions, a general uprising took place, and the different cities established provisional governments. The papal troops encountered the Sardinian army and were beaten. Some were taken prisoners, and the entire force was dispersed. A handful retired to Ancona; but when it was besieged on the following day, both by sea and by land, it

**Sept. 20.** was compelled to surrender. A few days later, Victor Emmanuel appeared in the city and assumed command. He thence proceeded to Lower Italy, to complete the conquests begun by Garibaldi. The patriotic general, who saw in Victor Emmanuel, the divinely appointed liberator of Italy, resigned to the King his dictatorial authority, and entrusted to him the completion of his great work, the uniting of Italy under a free and stable government. With the words, "Sire, I obey," he gave up his

**Nov. 7, 1860.** command, marching into Naples beside the King, commending his comrades to the especial protection of the monarch, and then returning to his modest estate on the island, Caprera.

§ 601. *Gaeta.* War operations now assumed a sharper character. After the **Nov. 2, 1860.** capture of Capua, King Francis, with the remnant of his troops, retired to the fortress of Gaeta. This was the last refuge of the Bourbon dynasty. The city was heroically defended, and its defence is the one bright spot in the short reign of Francis II., and his noble young wife, Marie of Bavaria. The siege of Gaeta lasted three months. Napoleon sought to free himself from complicity with the policy of the Sardinian king. Like other powers, he withdrew his ambassador from Turin, but he went even further. He sent a French fleet to the harbor of Gaeta, and thus enabled the besieged to supply themselves with food and ammunition. But the cry of the Neapolitan king brought him no armed help; his promises and proclamations to the people of the two Sicilys brought him no favor with his subjects. A few reactionary uprisings took on the character of bandit enterprises, and Napoleon, thinking that enough had been done for the honor of King Francis, called away his fleet.

**Feb. 13, 1861.** On the 13th of Feb., 1861, Francis and his wife sailed to Rome on a French ship. The next month, Messina passed into the hands of General Cialdini; the kingdom of the two Sicilys was at an end. And on the 18th of Feb., 1861, Victor



Emmanuel, surrounded by the representatives of all the states that acknowledged his sovereignty, proclaimed himself King of Italy.

§ 602. *The Kingdom of Italy.* With the exception of Austrian, Venice, and the papal city of Rome, all the states of Italy were now united in a single monarchy. The statecraft of Cavour, the resolute courage of Victor Emmanuel, the patriotic self-sacrifices of Garibaldi, the political sagacity of the cultivated classes, had united to achieve this great result; and even the agitation of Mazzini, and his republican friends, had contributed to the great enterprise. But a difficult task was yet to be accomplished. Years of rest and of peace must be obtained, to establish and to organize the rapid conquests of recent years, and to procure the respect and the confidence of other nations. Italy, it is true, was not free. Rome was still in other hands. Cavour was urged on every side to rash and dangerous measures. The people clamored for Rome and Venice, and were not altogether satisfied with a military monarchy. Even Garibaldi sympathized with this clamor, and with these suspicions, and was especially provoked at the dilatory policy of Cavour. Yet the great statesman succeeded in reconciling the angry patriot, and in restraining him from inconsiderate movements.



VICTOR EMMANUEL. (*Metzmacher.*)

But Count Cavour died too soon for the welfare of the state that he had called into being, and yet with a sublime consciousness that the future of the kingdom was secure. But under his successors, Ricasoli and Rattazzi, the Italian government progressed quietly in the path marked out by him. The European governments gradually recognized the new order. The banditti in Naples were energetically suppressed, even though they were supported from Rome; and the military strength of the land was increased, at the same time that better laws were passed, and reforms inaugurated. Yet the party of action was not satisfied with this gradual progress. They longed for Rome and Venice, and the agitators became so violent, that the government was obliged to make arrests and to disband some voluntary organizations. Among the imprisoned were friends and comrades of Garibaldi,

and the latter now determined to march against Rome. He sailed to Palermo, where he soon gathered armed volunteers about his standard. The young men eagerly followed him, especially as the rumor was circulated that the government secretly encouraged the undertaking. But an energetic proclamation of the King warned all Italians to take no part in this heedless movement. Yet Garibaldi was

not to be dissuaded. When his way was blocked by the garrison of Messina, he turned aside to Catania, where he embarked with two thousand volunteers, as he said "to enter Rome as a victor, or to die beneath its walls." But he did neither. For although he landed at Melito, and marched at once into the Calabrian mountains, he came into collision with a detachment of the Italian army at Aspromonte. A skirmish en-

*Aug. 28, 1862.* sued, in which a few volunteers were killed, and Garibaldi was wounded and taken prisoner. A government vessel brought him to Verignano, where he slowly recovered from his dangerous wound. He was an object of sympathy throughout Europe, and there was general rejoicing when the news was published that he was out of danger. After this unfortunate adventure, Italy had a long rest in which to complete

*Sep. 15, 1864.* her inner development. In September, 1864, France and Italy agreed that the capital of Italy should be transferred to Florence, and that the French troops should be gradually removed from Rome. The inhabitants of Turin were bitterly opposed to this change, but it took place in 1865. The Pope was exceedingly angry at the agreement of the two countries, and gave the world, as a Christmas present, the famous encyclical of 1864, in which he condemned the political and religious ideas of his age. He began also to create an army of his own, for the maintenance of his authority. The French troops now began to depart, and unexpected events soon made Venice a part of the Italian Kingdom.

#### 4. THE SEVEN WEEKS WAR.

§ 603. The conference at Gastein created only a truce. The evident desire of Prussia to annex Schleswig-Holstein found no favor in Vienna. The Austrian cabinet sought the support of the Congress of the Union, and held fast to her joint right of possession. This dissension soon produced trouble in the dukedoms, for while the Prussian governor, Von Manteuffel, established an iron rule in Schleswig, the Austrian

*Jan. 1866.* governor, Von Gablenz, administered affairs in Holstein with gentle moderation. The Prussian ministry soon complained that this moderation favored revolution, and was in conflict with the convention of Gastein. But Austria refused to change her policy, especially as the arrival of the Italian general, Govone, in Berlin, created the suspicion that Prussia was seeking an alliance with Italy. War prepar-

*March, 1866.* ations were made. Benedek was placed at the head of the Austrian army north of the Alps, while Arch-duke Albert assumed command in Venice. Prussia now made counter-preparations, and the Vienna cabinet then sought the support of the German Union. Prussia made a secret treaty with Italy, and Count Bismarck declared openly that the German Union, as then constituted, afforded so little guaran-

*March 24, 1866.* tee for the future of Germany, that Prussia felt compelled to move for its reform. Finally a day was appointed upon which both Austria and Prussia agreed

*April 25.* to disarm. But before it arrived, Austria declared that she would disarm against Prussia, but not against Italy. This excited hesitation in Berlin and Prussia refused to disarm. Austria then offered to refer the question to the Congress of the Union; this too was declined by the Prussian ministry. Terrible excitement now spread through Germany. Count Bismarck was the object of bitter hate; attempts were made upon his life, one of which he escaped as by miracle. The European powers proposed a Congress, but Austria declined to participate, except upon condition that none of the states represented in the Congress should enlarge her territory.

§ 604 Early in June the Austrian government brought the Schleswig-Holstein question before the Congress of the German Union, and ordered General Gablenz to convene the estates of Holstein. The Prussian government at once declared this to be a breach of the Gastein conference, and placed her armies in the field. Austria did likewise, but the condition of her army was worse than it had been even during the Italian campaign. Von Manteuffel was ordered to march into Holstein. Austria thereupon



MOLTKE.

insisted that the army of the German Union should be made ready for war. This motion of Austria was adopted by the Congress, whereupon Prussia de-

*June 10, 1866.* clared that the Union was dissolved, and brought forward a plan for a new confederation, based upon universal suffrage, and from which Austria was to be excluded.

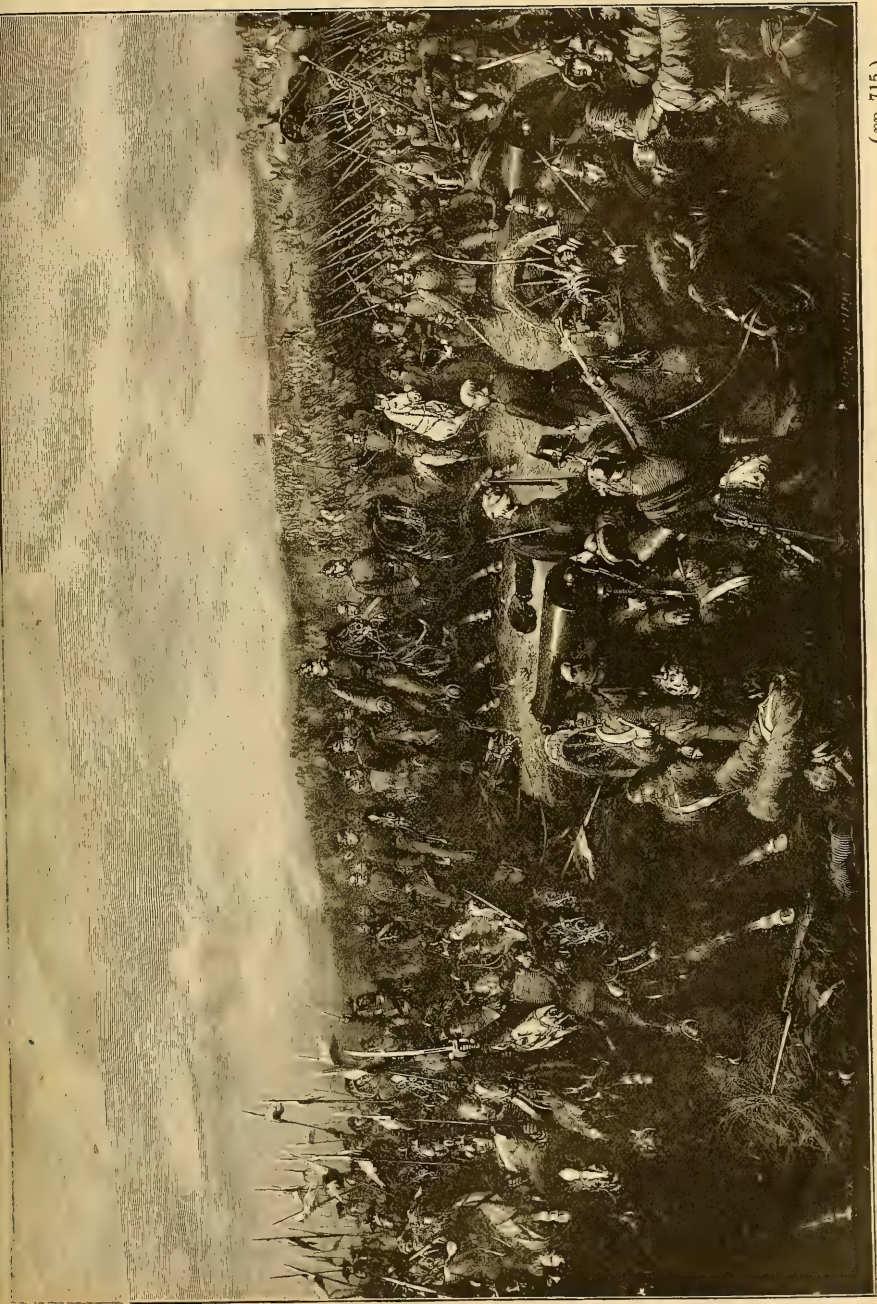
This marked the beginning of a new epoch for Germany. The opposition of the Prussian Parliament continued to criticise

*1866.* the King and his minister, but, in the hour of danger, the people rallied to the support of their monarch and his measures. The rest of Germany divided into two camps, the Austrian and the Prussian. The first

had nothing in common but their dislike of Prussia and of Bismarck; the second hoped to see Germany united under the lead of a powerful yet peaceful state. The thought of civil war was repugnant to all, but the discord of Germany, and the misery of political plurality, could be healed only after the sword had done its awful work.

*June, 1866.* Benedek had stationed his army in Bohemia, forming the arc of a





BATTLE OF SADOWA. (W. Von Camphausen.)

great circle on the Upper Elbe. Prussia determined therefore to unite all the states, north of the river Main, in a league under her control. Hanover, Saxony, and Hesse, were summoned to immediate decision. If they consented, they might retain their sovereignty within the constitution of the new union; otherwise they would be dealt with as enemies. All three refused. The Elector of Hesse was led a prisoner to Stettin. King George of Hanover abandoned his capital and his kingdom to the Prussian army, and sought to break through, with his army, to the south, so as to

*June, 1866.* unite with the Bavarians. After desperate fighting, the blind King George was obliged to capitulate. Meanwhile Saxony had fallen also into Prussian hands. The Saxon army had united with the Austrians in Bohemia, leaving the capital and kingdom undefended. Dresden was occupied by the Prussians without resistance.

§ 605. *War in Bohemia and along the River Main.* In possession of Saxony, the



CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM OF  
PRUSSIA.

Prussians could now concentrate their army in Bohemia. Before Benedek could carry out his plan of moving through Saxony into the heart of Prussia, the Prussians had marched three army corps into Bohemia. The first days of July, King William, accompanied by Bismarck and Von Roon, and his chief of staff, Von Moltke, arrived at the front and took command of the army. He had not long to wait for the decisive moment. On the 3rd of July, the decisive battle of

*July 3, 1866.* Königrätz (or Sadowa) was fought, and won for the Prussians by the opportune arrival of the army of the Crown Prince. Toward evening the remnant of the beaten army was in full retreat. "The day of Königrätz," said the King of Prussia in his order of the day, "has cost heavy sacrifices, but it is a day of honor for the army, and of pride for the Fatherland."

§ 606. Meanwhile, Prussian generals were marching against the army of the German Union, which had separated into two divisions, under the command of Prince Charles of Bavaria, and Prince Alexander of Hesse. The former was in North Franconia and the latter just north of Frankfort. Falkenstein was ordered to push between the two armies and to defeat them separately. The Bavarians were first compelled to retreat, whereupon the Prussian general, instead of following them, turned upon the army under the Prince of Hesse. When this army gave way, the Prussians entered

*July 14.* Frankfort. The Congress fled and resumed its sessions in Augsburg; heavy contributions were levied upon Frankfort, and the demands and threats of the conqueror so preyed upon the mind of Fellner, the Burgomaster, that he took his own life.

§ 607. The defeat of the Austrians at Königrätz opened, for the Prussians, the way into the heart of Austria. The army of the north was dispersed; Vienna was



shaken with excitement. The Emperor, Francis Joseph, thereupon determined upon a surprising move. In Italy, the army of the south, under Arch-duke Albert, had won a

*June 24.* splendid victory in the battle of Custoza. The Emperor instead of using his advantage against Italy, determined to cede Venice to Napoleon, so as to use the army of the south against Prussia, and to win the alliance of France. Napoleon accepted the unexpected present, explaining that it gave him opportunity to mediate between the warring powers. He sought at first to obtain a truce. But King William declared that he would agree to a truce only upon definite conditions of peace, and Victor Emmanuel was of the same mind. Yet the mediatorial activity of the French emperor limited the war in Italy to a few skirmishes, and led to negotiations between Prussia and Austria. The Austrian emperor called the Arch-duke Albert, with the army of the south, to his assistance, and gave to him the chief command. But the rapid march of the Prussians made the defence of the capital impossible. A truce was agreed upon, in which Austria consented

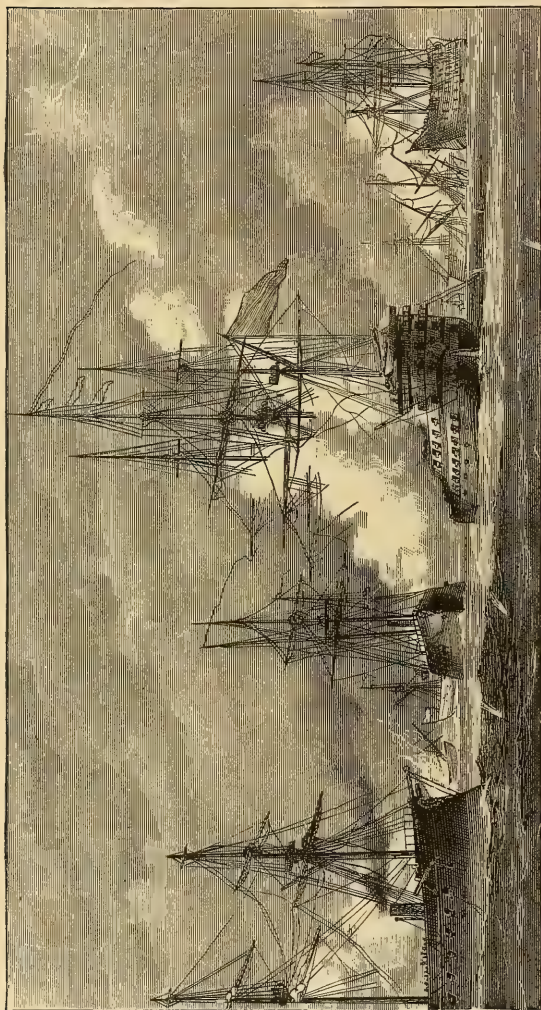
*July 26, 1866.* to her own exclusion from the German Union, gave up her claims to Schleswig-Holstein, and consented also to the transfer of Venice from France to Italy.

AN INCIDENT IN THE SEVEN DAYS' WAR. (W. Comphausen.)





§ 608. This truce was concluded just as the Prussian army was about to enter  
*Aug. 23.* Pressburg. Four weeks later, the peace of Prague was agreed upon,



BATTLE OF LISSA.

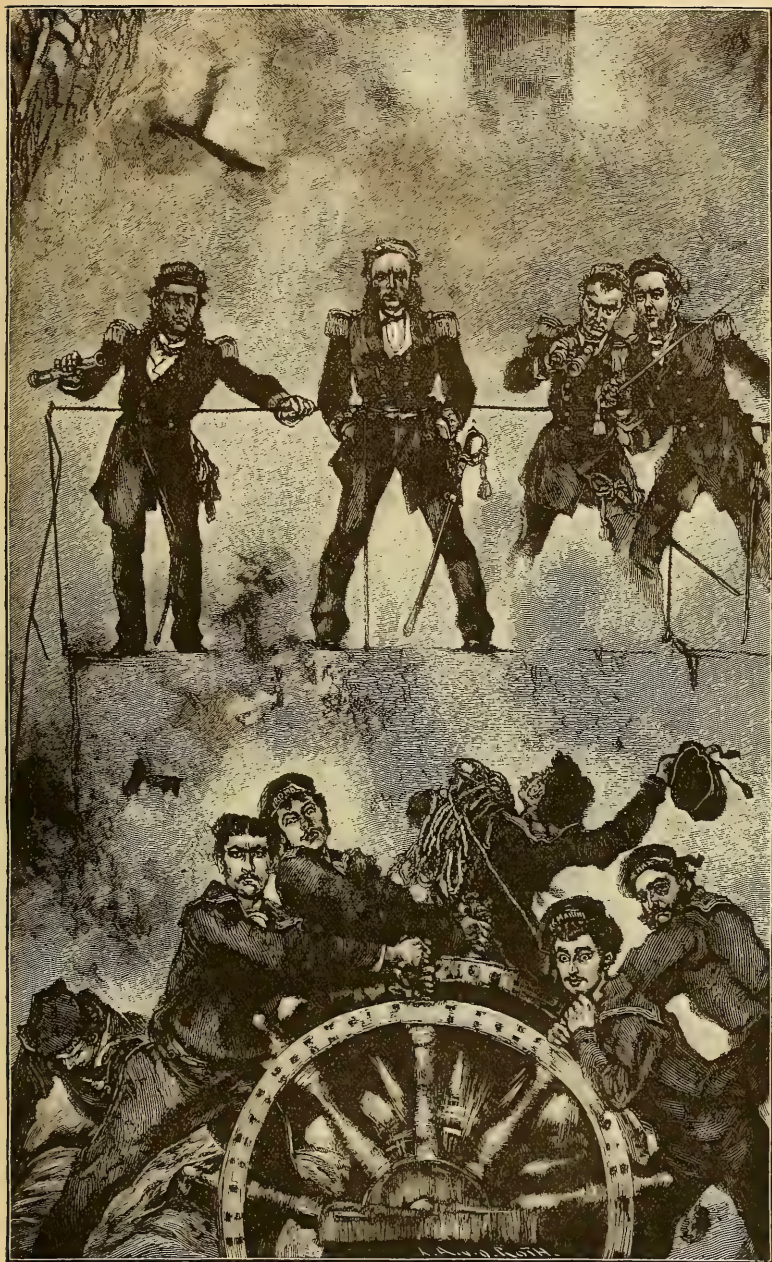
in which Austria consented to pay the costs of the war, and to accept the changes of boundary insisted upon by Prussia north of the river Main. Prussia, on the other hand, agreed to restore his throne to the king of Saxony. Meanwhile the troops of the Union had been earning no laurels. The men of Baden, of Würtemberg, and Bavaria, fought

*July 23-26.* bravely enough, but they fought in vain. The south-German governments finally sued for peace, and made a secret treaty with

*Aug. 13-22.* Prussia, in which they agreed to support her in the event of a foreign war, and to continue the customs-union. Hesse-Darmstadt and Saxony were occupied by Prussia for a long time. The Grand-duke consented, with great reluctance, to the conditions of peace,

*Sept. 3.* which compelled him to surrender Homburg and

the province of Upper-Hesse, and to turn over the fortifications of Mayence to Prussian soldiers. And in Saxony the Prussians remained until Herr von Beust retired



AUSTRIAN MAN OF WAR, FERDINAND MAX, ADMIRAL TEGETHHOFF IN COMMAND, RAMMING THE  
ITALIAN IRONCLAD, RE D'ITALIA AT THE BATTLE OF LISSA, 1866. (pp. 719.)



**Oct. 21, 1866.** from the ministry; then King John agreed to a peace, in which he was required to pay the costs of the war, to become a member of the North-German Union, and to accept the new military organization. Nothing remained now to hinder the construction of the new North-German Union.

§ 609. *United Italy with her new capital, Rome.* The fate of Venice was decided at the same time. The Austrians withdrew their troops, and the Italians, under Cialdini, soon stood in the heart of Venice. Garibaldi was at Lake Garda, carrying on a petty warfare with his volunteers. Wherever Italian was spoken, there the standard of the King was to be erected. One division of the army approached Trient. A naval

**July 20.** force also was collected at Ancona. But in a naval battle at Lissa, the Italian fleet was so utterly defeated, that the Florentine government thought it best

**July 25.** to accept a peace. Victor Emmanuel gave up his claims to South Tyrol and the Austrians formally acknowledged the kingdom of Italy. An election was or-

**Oct. 3.** dered in Venice, to determine the question of annexation. As the whole population voted in its favor, Victor Emmanuel entered the city in triumph. In December, 1866, the French troops left Rome, and for the first time in centuries, the beautiful peninsula of Italy was free from foreign soldiers. But Garibaldi and the national party insisted upon the possession of Rome. He invaded once more the territory of the pope, but his enterprise failed, and his men were either killed, dispersed, or taken prisoners. The French troops returned to protect the Vatican, and remained

**Dec. 1869.** until August, 1870. This made it possible for Pius IX. to assemble a general council in the Vatican toward the end of the year 1869. Here the Jesuits succeeded, in spite of a powerful opposition in the council itself, and in spite of the warning of the temporal powers, in procuring a declaration of papal infallibility in all matters of doctrine and morals.

At the very moment in which the council declared the pope to be the absolute authority in the church, the kingdom of Italy took possession of his dominions, and made an end of his temporal power. The French garrison had embarked hastily to

**Beginning** take part in the Franco-German war. The Florentine government im-  
**Sept., 1870.** mediately marched to the papal frontiers, at the same time taking possession of Civita Vecchia. The Pope was offered the exclusive possession of the Leonine district, on the right bank of the Tiber, but he refused all compromise. The Italians then took possession of the city. A slight resistance was made by the papal troops, but after three hours, the city capitulated. The papal army was disbanded; the foreign mercenaries were required to leave Italy; a provisional government was established, and an election was ordered to decide the question of annexation. The people voted almost unanimously to make Rome the capital of Italy. The Italian government declared, in a solemn statute, that the pope should still have the dignity of the sovereign, and should still exercise all his rights and functions as the head of the church, but Pope Pius IX., replied, with the excommunication of Victor Emmanuel.

§ 610. *The North German Union.* In Prussia, as in Italy, the year 1866 ended with a reconciliation of the monarch and his people. In his speech from the throne, at

**Aug. 5, 1866.** the opening of Parliament, King William asked the House of Representatives for an act of indemnity, which was passed almost without objection. The system of administration was then reorganized, according to the constitution, and the conflict peaceably concluded. A royal message announced to Parliament the desire of the



ministry to annex to Prussia, Hanover, Hesse, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort. And early in September, the statute of annexation passed both Houses. In France, this unexpected enlargement of Prussia excited great irritation, and for a time it appeared as if the imperial government would ask for compensation, by the cession of the left bank of the Rhine, and of Mayence. But it was soon manifest, that not only Prussia, but all Germany would defend every inch of German territory with the last drop of blood; so that Napoleon thought the price of a war too dear for so small an increase of power. He changed his cabinet and the war clouds dispersed. Meanwhile, the dispossessed princes of Germany absolved their officers from their oaths of allegiance, and thus enabled them to enter the Prussian service. The Elector of Hesse was guaranteed certain estates and revenues. The Duke of Nassau hesitated for a long time, but finally accepted a similar arrangement. But the King of Hanover refused all terms. In the course of the year 1867, the Prussian constitution, judicial and military system, were introduced into the conquered territory. All the lands of Germany, north of the river

**Dec. 15, 1866.** Main, now entered the North German Union, and at the end of the year 1866, ambassadors of all the states met at Berlin to deliberate upon the proposed

**1867.** constitution for the new confederation. The constitution agreed upon

**Feb. 24.-Apr. 7.** by them was submitted to a diet elected by the people. After long debates and different amendments, it was adopted by the diet, and then ratified by the legislatures and princes of the different states. It provided that all the states north of the Main, should unite to form a federal union, with the same laws, the same civil rights, the same military system. The army was to be under the command of Prussia; the citizens of the Union were to have unrestricted intercourse with each other, and equal privileges throughout the Union. In all the important features of political and social life, they were to have institutions in common;—the same weights and measures, the same coin, the same postal and telegraphic system, the same industrial and commercial laws, the same system of revenue and of military service. A federal council, presided over by a chancellor to be appointed by the king of Prussia, was to consist of representatives of the different states. This federal council was to legislate in connection with a federal diet. The federal chancellor was to be responsible to this diet, the members whereof were to be chosen directly by the people, and to serve without compensation. The army of the Union was to be an army of all the citizens, and to be subject to the Prussian military law. The relations of the South German states were to be regulated by particular treaties. During the progress of this reorganization of North Germany, Europe was startled with the news that the King of Holland intended to sell the dukedom of Luxemburg to the Emperor of France. The excitement was supreme, but Napoleon agreed finally to abandon Luxemburg, if Prussia would evacuate the

**May 7-11, 1867.** fortifications, and consent to neutralize the land. Prussia accepted and

**June, 1867.** the war cloud again dissolved. Germany then proceeded quietly to perfect her union. A customs-parliament was called into being, and in a short time north and south Germany were united in the same revenue system. The North German Diet accomplished a colossal work in the first period of its existence. A new industrial order was created; a new criminal code, new corporation laws, and a new system of weights and measures. In a word, the legislation of 1868 was almost a transformation of the social and economic order of Germany.

§ 611. But Austria also underwent a transformation. For many years the Hun-

garian statesman, Franz Deak, had maintained courageously that Hungary should remain united to Austria, but should have an independent government, and a constitution based upon the old system of rights, but adapted to existing conditions. He maintained, also, that Hungary should be territorially protected, by the addition of frontier lands in the south and the east. Not until after the treaty of Prague were the Austrians disposed to listen to such wisdom. But in 1867, the duplex kingdom, Austria-Hungary, came into being. Deak, and the imperial chancellor, Count Beust, agreed upon the new constitution, which had been formulated at Pesth, and it was then sanctioned by the Emperor Francis Joseph. Hungary received back her ancient rights ;

Transylvania, Croatia, and other frontier lands were annexed, and the conditions agreed upon, under which the two kingdoms should form one government. The appointment of a new Hungarian ministry, under Count Andrassy, and the solemn

*June 8, 1867.* coronation of Francis Joseph as king of Hungary, completed the reconciliation. A constitutional monarchy had been created, in which the two kingdoms were united in military, diplomatic, and economic institutions. An imperial ministry, with an imperial diet, were entrusted with the work of administration and legislation, and the two nationalities were bound together in mutual respect

*Dec. 21.* and pacific co-operation.

In Austria proper, great changes took place. The February constitution was



FRANCIS JOSEPH I. (1889.)

restored, and in 1868 the first constitutional ministry was appointed, Prince Auersperg serving as minister-president, while Count Beust became imperial minister for foreign affairs.

## 5. THE SPANISH REVOLUTION OF 1868.

§ 612. When the French empire was founded, the court party in Madrid, with the help of the queen mother, Maria-Christina, succeeded in overthrowing Narvaez

*Oct., 1851.*

and his cabinet. A CONCORDAT was then concluded with the Pope, which made great concessions to the Spanish clergy, and the royal authority tended rapidly to absolutism. The reaction was greatly assisted by an attack upon Queen Isabella,

*Feb., 1852.*

made by an insane priest, Martin Marino. The press was put under sharp limitations, the Cortes dissolved, the constitution altered, and Carlists and clericals appointed to the influential places in the state and the army. This brought about a union of all the liberals, the progressives, and the moderates. A change of ministry

*July, 1854.*

was the consequence. Espartero, Duke of Vittoria, undertook the formation of a new cabinet. Maria-Christina was escorted by Spanish soldiers across the frontier to Portugal. But ministry succeeded ministry. Espartero, Narvaez, and O'Donnell, followed each other in rapid succession. The Spaniards, under O'Donnell,

carried on a successful war against Morocco, and an attempt of the Carlists to get possession of the Spanish throne, under Ortega and Cabrera, failed miserably. Ortega was made prisoner and shot. Count Montemolin, the claimant of the throne, was also seized

*April, 1860.* and compelled to renounce his claims. But when O'Donnell left the ministry, Spanish affairs rapidly became worse. The uprisings and mutinies of the democrats, and of the soldiers were, with difficulty, suppressed. The ministry seemed to be without rudder and without sailing orders. Narvaez did his utmost to silence the press, to remove liberal teachers from the universities, and liberal officers from their position in the state. But the opposition grew in spite of his attempted terrorism.

*1864.* The opinion had taken deep root that there was no salvation for Spain under a Bourbon dynasty. Republican ideas entered the minds of all classes; even found access to the soldiers. One party went so far as to clamor for the union of Spain and Portugal under the House of Braganza. The intrigues of the palace, and the caprices of the Queen, whose wanton life and superstitious piety made her an object of repugnance to the people, finally provoked an outbreak.

§ 613. Narvaez withdrew, and the government passed once more to the liberals, among whom O'Donnell and Serrano had the greatest influence. These sought to conciliate the party of progress by abolishing the tyrannical measures of their predecessors, and by compelling the Queen to remove from court, Father Claret and Sister Patrocinio, the heads of the Camarilla. At the same time, O'Donnell sought

*Aug. 1865.* the friendship of France. He visited the Emperor Napoleon in his camp at Chalons, and arranged for a meeting of the Spanish and French royal families. But the democrats and progressives were demanding universal suffrage, and the separation of church and state. General Prim was their head and leader. Republican up-

*Jan. 1866.* risings took place in Catalonia and Valencia, but they came to naught. Prim, with his seven hundred comrades, was pushed across the Portuguese frontier. He retired to England to wait for better times. But military uprisings broke out in Madrid, Salamanca, and other places. The court determined now to put an end to this unrest, Narvaez was recalled, a severe system of military police was adopted, the independence of the cities and of the provinces was abridged, education placed under the control of the clergy, and the Cortes filled with subservient instruments of the crown. Yet in spite of the interference of the ministry with the election, one hun-

*Dec. 29-30, 1866.* dred and thirty-seven members of the Cortes petitioned for the abolition of the military-police system. Thereupon a number of them were arrested and carried to the Canary Islands. Serrano, the president of the Senate, was likewise

*March 1867.* banished. O'Donnell and other prominent liberals escaped by flight. The Cortes were dissolved, and the opposition editors threatened with death. A reign of terror spread itself over the whole kingdom. The Cortes abandoned all opposition. Narvaez and his colleagues yielded entirely to the Camarilla, and constitutional government was reduced to a shadow. The rumor spread that the secularized

*Feb. 6, 1868.* cloisters were to be restored. The Pope presented Queen Isabella with a golden rose, as a token of his satisfaction with her religious feeling. When Narvaez

*April 23, 1868.* died, the new cabinet, under Gonzalez Bravo, continued the reign of terror. Many well-known men were arrested and carried off to the Balearic and Canary Islands. The Duke of Montpensier was ordered to leave the country. This was the cap-stone of the reaction. The Spanish nation was embittered with the Bourbon



dynasty, and above all, with Queen Isabella; but the discord of parties had prevented a general uprising. Now, however, the liberals, the progressives, and the democrats determined to unite in a common movement against the Queen and the hated ministry.

*Sept. 1868.* They opened communications with General Prim, who sailed secretly to Gibraltar. Suddenly, while Queen Isabella was enjoying herself at San Sebastian, the news spread through the land that Admiral Topete had raised the flag of rebellion in the harbor of Cadiz, and in conjunction with General Prim had issued a proclamation, calling upon all Spaniards to forget their differences and to overthrow the tyr-



ISABELLA II.

anny. Cadiz, Seville, and other cities immediately answered with an uprising. A second manifest of Prim declared universal suffrage to be the foundation of the new social and political regeneration. The Queen sought in vain to appease the storm by a change of ministry, but her armies were defeated not far from Cordova,

*Oct. 4. 1868.* and a few days later, the victorious Serrano entered Madrid in triumph. In connection with Prim and Topete, he established a provisional government. The chiefs of this government were monarchists, and Serrano would probably have interfered in favor of Isabella, if she could have consented to exile her hated favorite Marfori, or to abdicate in favor of her son, the prince of Asturia. Isabella however was convinced that a

longer stay on Spanish soil might prove dangerous. She therefore departed for France, accompanied by her feeble husband, her favorite, Marfori, her confessor, Father Claret, and a numerous train of courtiers.

§ 614. When the court had departed, the old parties reappeared. While the government held fast to the monarchy, and, like the Belgians and the Greeks in former days, looked abroad for a king, the republicans grew stronger in the south, and the Carlists of the north proclaimed Don Carlos King of Spain, under the title of Charles VII. The Carlist uprising had little success, but the republicans were, with difficulty,

*Nov. 1868.* suppressed by the Government. The election to the Cortes, in 1869, resulted in favor of the monarchists. But whom should they select as king? There were three Bourbon claimants, Prince Alphonso of Asturia, to whom his mother Isabella transferred her rights, Don Carlos, the choice of the legitimists, and the Duke of

Montpensier. But no one of the three had any favor with the people. And the king of Portugal showed no desire for the Spanish throne, nor for a union of the two peoples. The government was accordingly conducted as a republic. The Cortes, after stormy debates, adopted a new constitution, which provided for an hereditary king, with a

**June 1, 1869.** senate and a house of representatives, and guaranteed to the nation all the fundamental rights of a free people. A regency now became imperative. Marshal Serrano was called to this dignity. Prim was made prime-minister, and General Dulce was made captain general of Cuba, in order to reduce that rebellious island to submission. Many attempts were made to procure a monarch. The offer of the crown to the Prince of Hohenzollern was the occasion of a terrible war between France and Germany. Finally the Spanish constitution was crowned by the choice of

**Nov. 1870.** Amadeus, the second son of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy. But **Dec. 27.** before the chosen monarch entered his new kingdom, General Prim was assassinated. The murderers were never discovered. Possibly the "king-maker" was a victim of republican revenge, possibly of an assassin hired by the legitimist emigrants.

## II. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR OF 1870, AND THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

### § 615.



As we have seen already, France desired to annex the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, and sought to persuade Prussia to give up the left bank of the Rhine. When these projects failed, she offered an alliance, by means of which she could, herself, get possession of Belgium, while Germany was to be allowed to incorporate the South-German states into the newly formed Union. At the same

time, she sought to hinder the building of the St. Gothard railroad which was to unite Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. As all these plans failed, a trivial cause was made the ground of a terrible war. The Spanish people, as we know, drove out their queen in the year 1868, and were looking for a king. In their extremity they offered their crown to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern. This prince was, through his mother, nearly related to the Bonaparte family, although he belonged to a collateral branch of the Prussian house. The Emperor Napoleon, who would have been glad to have seen the throne of Spain in the hands of Isabella's son, saw, or pretended to see, in the candidacy of a Hohenzollern, an attempt to increase the power and influence of Prussia, and threatened war if this plan was not abandoned. The Prince thereupon declined the Spanish crown, and King William approved his course.

**July 13, 1870.** But the cabinet at Paris was not satisfied. The French ambassador, Benedetti, sought out the aged monarch at Ems, and demanded from him a pledge that he would never justify, in any event, such a disposal of the Spanish crown. The King, indignant at such a demand, refused to receive the ambassador a second time, and this refusal was regarded at Paris as a ground of war.

§ 616. *Worth, Metz, Sedan.* The French government hoped and believed that the war would be at least confined to Prussia and France. Indeed, they hoped to

make alliances with the South German states, and the discontented princes of the North-German Union.' But in this they were greatly disappointed. When war was

*July 19, 1870.* declared in Paris, all Germany rose against the French undertaking. In his speech from the throne, King William declared that he relied, with the greatest confidence, upon the unanimity of the German princes of the South and of the North,



PRINCE LEOPOLD.

and that the patriotism of the German people would not be slow to defend the national honor and independence. Not only in Baden, but in Hesse, in Württemberg, and Bavaria, the war was accepted as a necessity. The means for its prosecution were immediately and enthusiastically voted, and all the armies of Germany united under the banner of the Prussian king, and hurried forward to the field of battle. The "Watch on the Rhine" became a national anthem. Fortunately for Baden, the



French were by no means prepared for war, and were unable to cross the Rhine. Under the splendid strategy of Count Moltke and his staff, the land to the west of the river became the theatre of war.

In the first week of August a skirmish took place at Saarbrücken, where the heir to the French throne received his "baptism of fire." The French army of the Rhine, under the command of Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, was attacked



THE RIDE TO THE DEATH AT THE BATTLE OF SEDAN. (*E. Huenten.*)

by the Prussians, Bavarians, and other German troops under the command of the Crown-prince at Weissenburg, and completely annihilated at the battle of Worth, while the army of General Frossard was defeated by the army of Prince Frederick Karl in a terrible battle at Spicherer Heights, and driven into the fortified city of Metz. Meanwhile Bazaine pushed further westward, in order to unite with the troops at Chalons. To prevent this the Prussians, under Steinmetz, attacked the

French to the east of the Moselle, while the second army, under Prince Frederick Karl, pushed southward by forced marches to head off the French army. Bazaine felt compelled, under these circumstances, to deliver battle before all the German armies could concentrate. This precipitated the decisive battle at Gravelotte, *Aug. 18, 1870*, in which the French, in spite of their strong position on the left bank of the Moselle, were completely beaten by the German forces under the King's command. The French Emperor and his son succeeded in escaping to Chalons, whither MacMahon had retired, with the remnants of the army of the Rhine. The battle of St. Privat, where the victory was won by the decisive action of the Saxons under the Crown-prince Albert, put an end forever to the discord between Prussia and Saxony. The bloody battles in front of Metz forced Marshal Bazaine first to shut himself up within the walls of Metz, and finally to surrender his entire army. But before he capitulated,

BATTLE OF MARS-LA-TOUR. (*Emil Huenten*.)



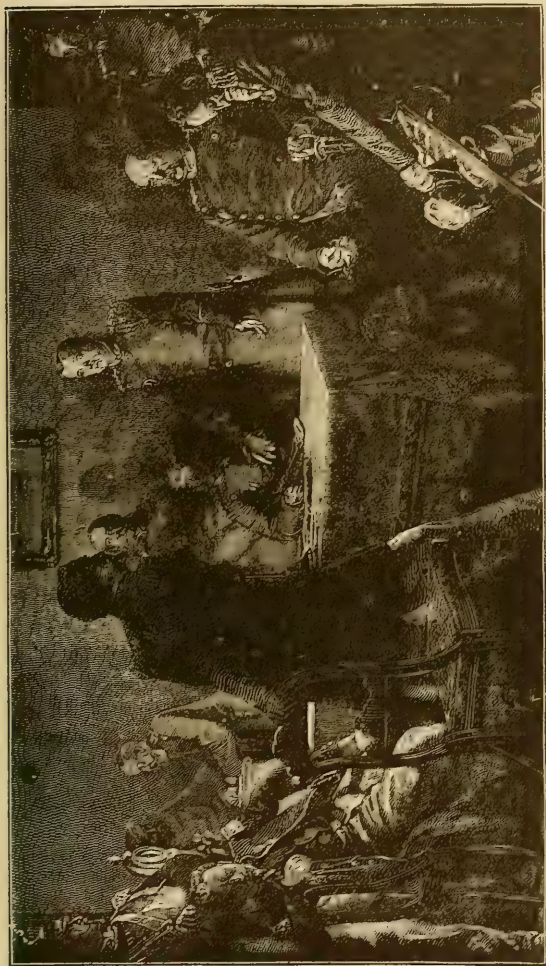
the Emperor attempted to relieve him by a bold march to the north. MacMahon had grave doubts of the success of this enterprise. But the regency in Paris, in which



the Empress Eugenie had the decisive voice, insisted upon its execution. The plan was clear enough to the German commanders. Their army consequently interrupted its march to the west, and moved northward in order to unite with the army of the

King. Enormous armies were now crowded together in the valley of the Meuse, where the battle of Sedan was

*Sept. 1-2, 1870.* fought on the 1st of September, 1870. The French were so completely surrounded, that Napoleon himself offered his sword to King William of Prussia, and General Wimpffen, who commanded the army in place of the wounded Marshal MacMahon, concluded a capitulation, in which his whole army of one hundred thousand men, forty generals and five thousand officers, with all the ammunitions of war, cannon, and horses was surrendered to the victor. The lines about Metz were now drawn still closer. Before the end of September, the German armies were in front of Paris, and the Prussian king took up his residence in the splendid salons of Versailles,



BISMARCK.  
MOLTKE.  
THE SURRENDER OF SEDAN. 1871.  
WIMPFEN.

where every picture reminded him of the glories of France.

§ 617. *The French Republic.* But the war now took a new direction. The Emperor Napoleon had hardly reached the rooms at Cassel, in which his uncle Jerome had spent



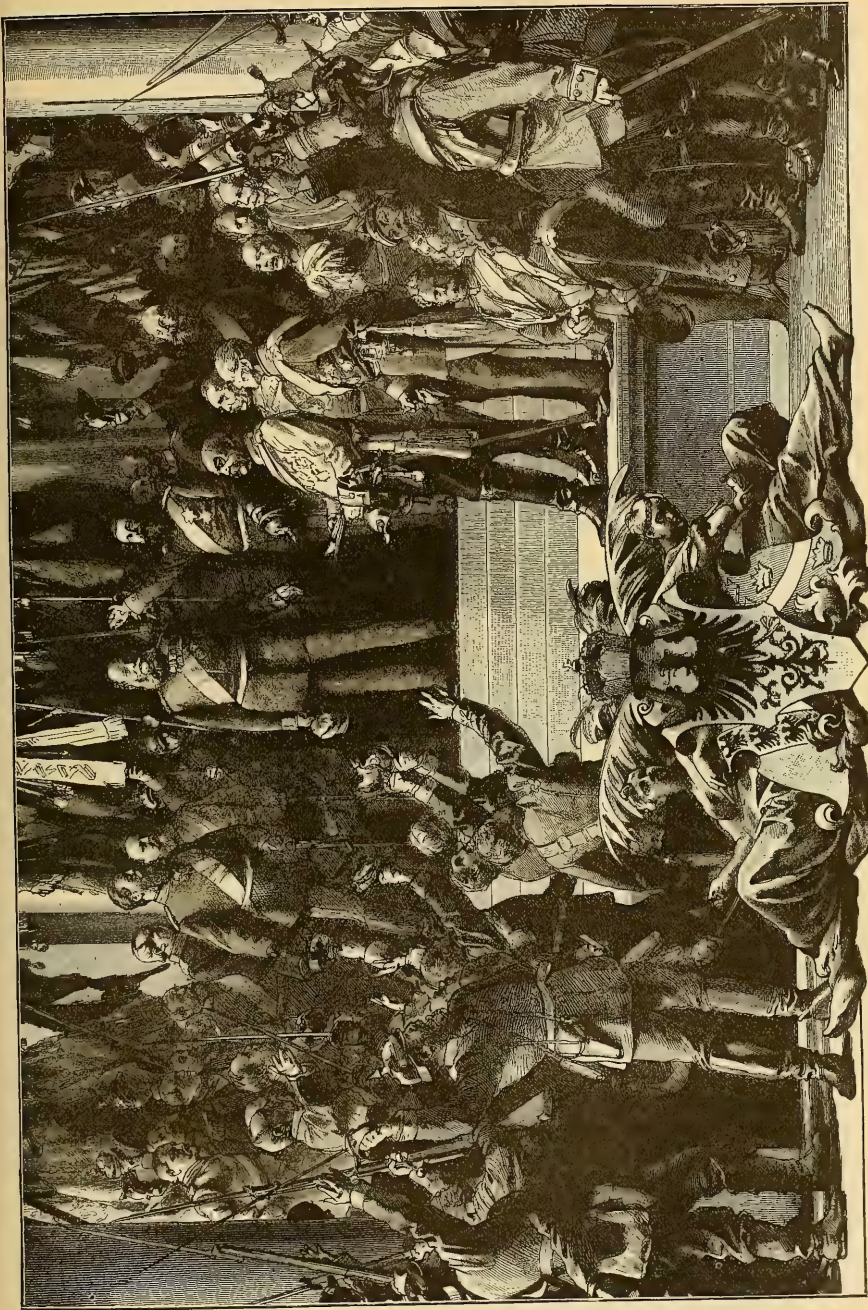
six merry years, before the imperial government was destroyed by a revolution. The  
*Sept. 3, 1870.* Empress fled to England, where the imperial prince soon joined her. In Paris "a Government of National Defence" was formed by members of the opposition, and these immediately announced their determination to surrender, "no foot of our land and no stone of our fortresses." The war pursued its course. The memories of the great revolution filled the men of the third republic with the belief that they too would be invincible. A general conscription was ordered like that which, under Carnot, had led to the conquest of Europe. Gambetta, the hot-blooded young lawyer from southern France, organized a reign of terror. The entire male population, to the age of forty years, was called out, and France was converted into a camp. Every defeat was branded as treason. But the guillotine was not called into operation. The French republic unfolded an energy which astonished the world. Paris endured the horrors of a four months' siege, submitting willingly to the greatest hardships, and to complete isolation from the rest of the world. Strong armies were collected in the north, and along the Loire, to drive the Germans from the sacred soil of France. Strasburg was surrendered on the 28th of September. The starving city of Metz capitulated on the 27th of October. But the spirit of the French was still unbroken; Bazaine was denounced as a traitor, and even Uhrich, who commanded at Strasburg, did not escape suspicion. Gambetta, who had escaped from Paris, issued his edicts from Tours and Bordeaux. Even the old Garibaldi left his island, and collected a motley company from all lands and of all tongues, to fight for the independence of France. Many battles were fought; hunger and cold and disease wasted away the suffering troops; but they would not



LEON GAMBETTA.

*Dec. 31, 1870.* give up the fight. Trochu, who was in command at Paris, sought to break through the line of the besiegers, and to reach the armies in the provinces. Gambetta marched armies from all parts of France toward Paris, and sent, at the same time, an army from the south to relieve Belfort, and to break through into Alsace, and across the Rhine to Baden. But it was all in vain. General Werder and his heroic soldiers, defended the mountain passes with a courage and endurance never to be forgotten.

§ 618. *The New German Empire.* The true reward for this courage of the German army must be a nobler political existence. The time had now come for the German peoples to form one nation. Toward the close of the year, Bismarck, the chancellor of the Union, concluded treaties with the ambassadors of the South German governments, which agreed that the constitution of the North German Union should be introduced into



WILLIAM I. PROCLAIMED EMPEROR AT VERSAILLES. (Anton Von Werner.)



Bavaria and Württemberg, and into the grand duchies of Baden and Hesse. The legislatures of all four states ratified these treaties. The King of Bavaria thereupon suggested to the German princes that the imperial crown should be offered to the King

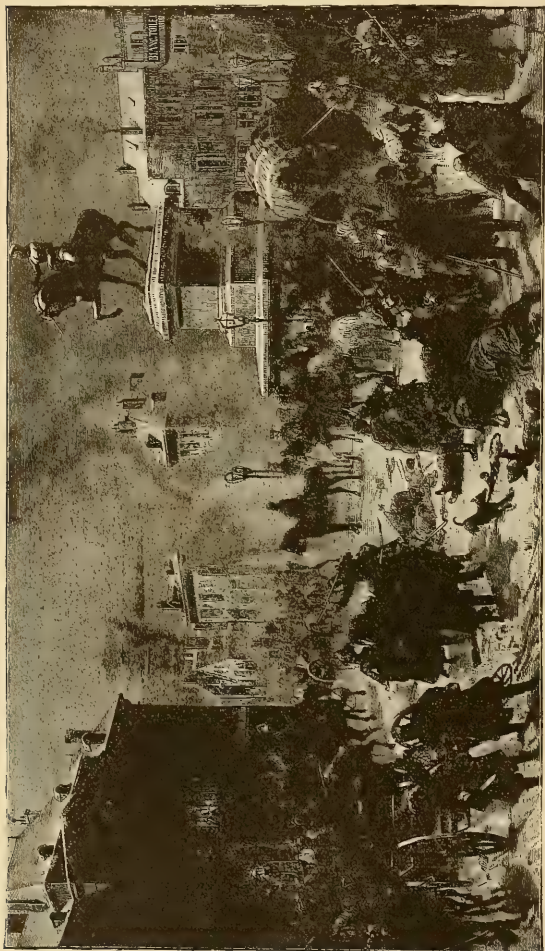
of Prussia. A deputation from the Reichstag, headed by the former president of the National Assembly, that met at Frankfort, in 1848, proceeded to Versailles to offer their congratulations to the aged monarch; and all Germany rejoiced when the German Empire was established, and William I. was proclaimed the Emperor of Germany. The solemn proclamation was

*Jan. 18, 1871.* made in the splendid hall of mirrors, in the castle of Versailles.

§ 619. *The Bombardment of Paris.* During these diplomatic labors, and great political events, the war proceeded without interruption. Moltke had gradually brought together immense stores, and cannon of great range, the like of which had never been seen. Twelve batteries, with seventy-six terrible cannon, were

erected during Christmas week, and the cannonading was begun. In two days, Mt. Avron, the key of Paris, was abandoned; and terror and confusion took possession of the excited city, as the forts on the east were rained upon by an incessant fire. A few

*Jan. 5, 1871.* days later, the forts on the south were overwhelmed with a shower of



ENTRANCE OF THE GERMANS INTO ORLÉANS. (L. Drann.)





EMPEROR WILLIAM BEFORE PARIS. (W. Von Camphausen.)

iron hail. Bombs exploded in the suburbs and in portions of the city itself, although the batteries were five miles distant. A bombardment from such a distance had been thought impossible. A cry of rage and of horror went up from the people, against the barbarians who were seeking to destroy the metropolis of civilization. With one accord they demanded that Trochu, who was still in command, should make an effort to break through the German lines. On the 19th of January, the sally was attempted. One hundred thousand men were brought together, and with heroic courage made the desperate effort. It almost succeeded, but General Ducrot arrived too late; the victorious van-guard was beaten back after a desperate fight of seven murderous hours. The French returned to Paris, having lost more than seven thousand in dead and wounded. The next day Trochu sought for a truce that he might bury his dead.

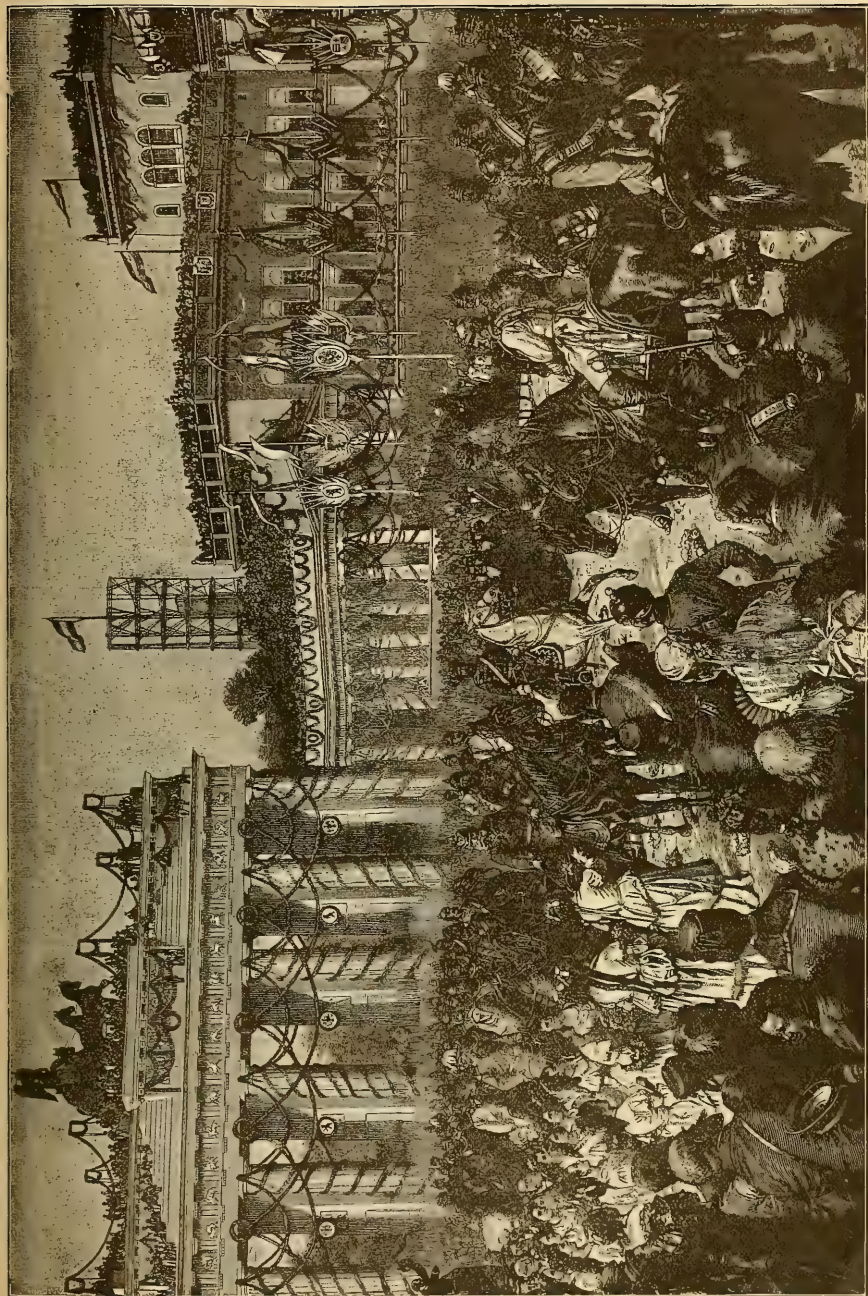
§ 620. *The Truce of Paris.* The Parisians had put their last hope in this attempt to break through the German lines. When it failed, the starving city gave way to desperation. Capitulation was at hand, but as Trochu had sworn that he would never give up the city, he turned over the command to Vinoy. Worn out with hunger, shells bursting over their heads, the lower classes of the city ready for an uprising, the citizens determined, with great reluctance, to send Jules Favre to negotiate a peace. It was perhaps the hardest moment in the life of this noble patriot, when he was led through the German lines for an interview with Count Bismarck. It was finally agreed between the two statesmen, that on the 27th of January, at midnight, the firing should cease on both sides, and all the forts of Paris be surrendered to the Germans. A three weeks' truce should follow, in order that a National Assembly might be chosen, and the terms of peace agreed upon. Gambetta attempted to restrict the free choice of representatives, by excluding the imperialists from the polls; but Prince Bismarck protested against this as a violation of the agreement, whereupon Gambetta gave up his dictatorship. In Paris, the wagon loads of provisions were greeted with joy. Nevertheless, the population broke out into up-braidings against Trochu, Gambetta, and the Government of the National Defence. All these were traitors. They had surrendered the city without a cause.

§ 621. *Destruction of the Army of the East.* The Truce of Paris did not include Belfort. Jules Favre agreed to this, upon condition that the army of Bourbaki should also be free to continue operations.

This was willingly accepted by Von Moltke, as Manteuffel had already received orders to attack Bourbaki, and to drive him to the Swiss frontiers. His retreat soon became a rout. The number of prisoners was fifteen thousand, and the snow fields were covered with dead and wounded. Bourbaki, overwhelmed with reproaches by Gambetta, attempted his own life. General Clinchant then agreed with the Swiss general, Herzog, to disband his army, if his soldiers were permitted to cross into Switzerland. In long trains the disarmed troops moved through the passes of the Jura, and were taken care of by the sympathizing people of the republic. "This is the fourth French army," said King William, "which has been put out of the field."

§ 622. *Belfort and the Preliminaries of Versailles.* The surrender of the forts of Paris, and the destruction of Bourbaki's army, brought the war to a close. Gambetta was denounced as "the organizer of defeats," and the people demanded peace. The National Assembly met at Bordeaux, on the 12th of February. Republicans and monarchists were both agreed that a further prosecution of the war would only in-





EMPEROR WILLIAM I. ENTERING BERLIN, 1871. (W. Von Camphausen.)



crease the national misery. Grévy was elected president, Jules Favre and his colleagues surrendered their authority to the representatives of the people, and a provisional government was created, in which Thiers exercised the chief executive

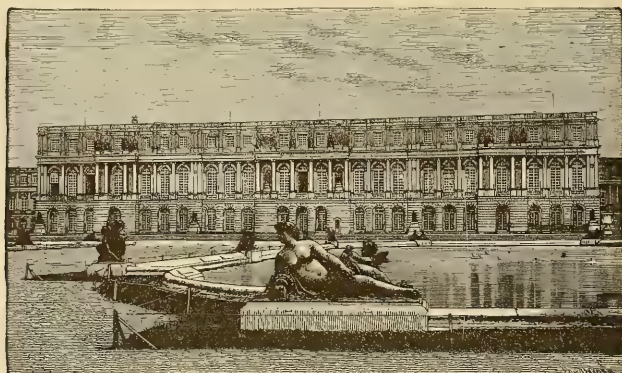


A. THIERS.

authority. But the truce had almost expired. The term was protracted, only upon condition that Belfort should be surrendered. In consideration of their magnificent courage, the garrison were permitted to march out with the honors of war. But as Gambetta was still leading a war party, and as even General Chanzy was of the opinion that France was strong enough to continue the war, the truce was extended for a short time only. The new government, however, favored an honorable peace. The protest of the Alsatians was passed over, yet with great reluctance. A commission of fifteen

**Feb. 10, 1871.** members was chosen to assist the ministry in their negotiations for peace. These were long and difficult.

Count Bismarck insisted upon the cession



THE PALACE AT VERSAILLES.

of Alsace and Lorraine, including Metz. Thiers proposed the destruction of the frontier fortifications, or to refer the question to arbitration, but the Chancellor refused all intervention, and reluctantly consented that Belfort should be separated from the rest of

Alsace, and remain in French possession. The French agreed to pay the costs of the war, amounting to a thousand million dollars, the whole to be paid within three years, and the German troops to remain in France until the final payment was made. To

appease French pride, only a partial entry was made into Paris. The French were sagacious enough not to accept the German offer, to remain out of Paris if they were permitted to retain Belfort. These preliminaries were agreed upon at Versailles, on the 26th of Feb., and the truce prolonged until the 6th of March. The National Assembly was reconvened, and Thiers began, amid painful silence, to read the conditions of peace; but the emotion of the aged statesman was too great for him to finish the reading. Quinet and Victor Hugo protested eloquently and passionately against the mutilation of France, but rhetoric cannot overcome armies, and the preliminaries of



THE GERMANIA MONUMENT ON THE  
NIEDERWALD.

*March 1, 1871.* peace were adopted by a vote of five hundred and forty-six against one hundred and seven. Thus ended the bloody war between France and Germany. Two hundred thousand French soldiers were in German fortresses and barracks as prisoners of war. Thousands of cannon had been captured and hundreds of battle-flags and imperial eagles. The line of fortifications, extending from the Rhine to the English Channel, upon which the French government had labored for two centuries, together with the supposed invincible works of Paris, of Strasburg, and of Metz, were all in the hands of German commanders.

§ 623. *The Commune of Paris.* - On the 1st of March, while the National Assembly at Bordeaux was voting upon the conditions of peace, the German troops marched into the western portion of the French capital. A few days afterward, Versailles was abandoned, and the German Emperor started for home. The treaty between France and Germany was received by the French population with mixed feelings. The monarchists, the moderate republicans, and the people of the provinces greeted the news of peace with thankful satisfaction; but the radicals, the social democrats, and the masses of the great cities, exclaimed passionately about cowardice and treason. And the dethroned Emperor added to the confusion and the irritation, by a manifest protesting against the action of the National Assembly.

Certain sections of Paris were full of uproar, and the National Guard refused to lay down their arms and to obey the orders of the National Assembly. A number of republican representatives resigned their places, and the excitement became greater when the National Assembly removed the seat of government from Paris to Versailles. The city of Paris now broke into revolution. A central committee of the National Guard proclaimed the COMMUNE OF PARIS, and began an armed resistance to the govern-

ment. A terrible civil war ensued. The insurgents murdered two generals, Lecomte and Thomas. They fired upon unarmed citizens; they levied contributions upon the banks and the railroad corporations; they declared the property of religious societies the property of the state; they devastated the home of Thiers; they imprisoned the arch-bishop of Paris with many other conspicuous clergymen and citizens; they tore down the Vendome column, and set fire to the Tuileries, the Louvre, the Luxembourg, the City Hall, the ministerial buildings; in short, plundered and destroyed without thought and without restraint. The Arch-bishop Darboy and many others who had been arrested were cruelly shot. The streets were stained with blood and strewn with corpses, and when the government troops finally suppressed the Communists, military courts were established, which excited the world for months, by their condemnations to exile and to death.

§ 624. *The Peace of Frankfort, and the Feeling in Germany.* The Germans did not interfere with the civil war, as both sides carefully avoided the violation of the treaty. The struggle continued, and the negotiations also. At first at Brussels and afterward at Frankfort. A treaty was finally agreed upon, in the latter city, and the news was greeted throughout Germany with great enthusiasm. On the 21st of March, 1871, representatives from all Germany, from the north and from the south assembled in Berlin to deliberate upon the laws, and to determine the form of the new Germany; to establish a government for Alsace and Lorraine; and to make provision for the invalid soldiers, and for the families of those who had fallen in battle.

### III. HISTORICAL SURVEY.

#### a. RETROSPECT OF LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CULTURE.

##### § 625. *Literary Changes. Heine.*



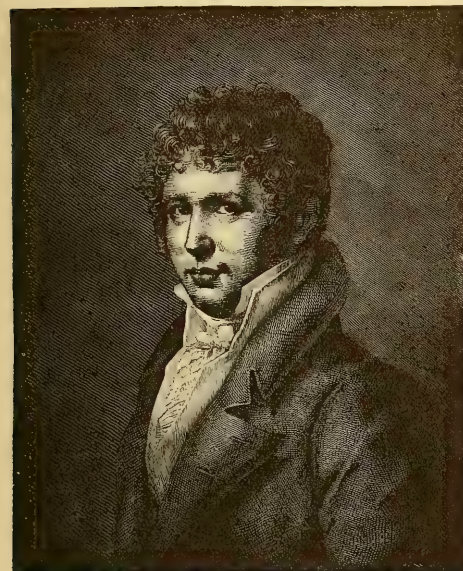
ROMANTICISM, with its enthusiasm for the Middle Age, soon became a mere reminiscence. Her apostles cared nothing for the people, and the people cared nothing for Romanticism. But the literature of democracy soon aroused the masses, by its attacks upon all existing institutions of church and state. The Jews were conspicuous in the radical ranks. Ludwig Börne, distinguished for his diction and critical skill, and Heinrich Heine, a gifted poet, were the most eminent of these Semitic writers. Heine especially attracted attention by his pathos, his biting wit, his intellectual swiftness and power, the splendor of his diction, and the singular beauty which broke forth from pages often marred by coarse invective and reckless diatribes. Close upon Heine followed Young Germany, in the person of Karl Gutzkow, Heinrich Laube, and many others. They sought a merry life rather than a nobler one; the old pagan virtues, rather than the Christian ideals. With a wanton enthusiasm for their mistress, Progress, they scoffed at self-sacrifice, caring more for the forms of art, than for spiritual significance. They lacked the energy and the sagacity for statecraft, yet delighted in politics. Hence their shrewd and effective criticisms of existing social and political conditions. Hence,



too, the vagueness of their political ideals and their feebleness in constructive reforms.

A group of serious writers came nearer to the popular heart, and wrought mightily as producers of unrest. Herwegh, with his "Poems of a Living Soul," Von Fallersleben, with his "Songs of the People," Prutz, Dingelstedt, Freiligrath, and others, gave expression to the passionate longing of the age for social transformation, for a paradise on earth, for an escape from misery, and a share in material pleasure.

Berthold Auerbach, the translator of Spinoza, and the author of "Little Barefoot," was a Jewish child of the Black Forest. His pictures of German domestic life, among the peasants, and in court circles, are a beautiful blending of reminiscences of reality and ideal suggestion. Kinkel is



ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT.

easily chief of modern German humorists. His Uncle Brösig is as wonderful as Falstaff, and a world more lovable.

The first of Austrian poets in our century is Grillparzer, although his genius received little recognition during his lifetime. Hämerling, the author of "Aspasia," and Franzos, who wrote the "Struggle for Justice," are also Austrians. Among the distinguished literary women of Germany, in the nineteenth century, were Heine's friend, Rabel, the wife of Varnhagen von Ense, Goethe's friend, Bettina von Arnim, the Countess Hahn-Hahn, Fanny Lewald, and Bertha von Suttner, the author of "Ground Arms."

§ 626. In theology, De Wette and Schleiermacher sought to reconcile the eternal antithesis of the natural and supernatural. But Strauss and Feuerbach, both disciples

known for his political martyrdom and his lyrical poetry; Hebbel for *Hebbel, 1813-1863.* his wild, passionate, and powerfully repulsive dramas. Emmanuel Geibel is *Geibel, 1815-1884.* the poet of loyalty and conservative feeling; so too *Redwitz, b. 1823.* is Oscar Von Redwitz.

Paul Heyse is famous for his *Heyse, b. 1830-.* novels and romances "Children of the World," "Paradise," and for his dramatic poems, especially the "Sabine *Bodenstedt, Women.*" Franz *b. 1810-.* Bodenstedt made careful studies of the Orient, which he reproduced in his poems. Riehl *Riehl, b. 1823-.* is the founder of the later historical novel, which has been brought to perfection by Felix Dahn, in his "Struggle for Rome." Spielhagen and Freytag are renowned for their novels, but *Reuter 1810-1874.* Fritz Reuter is

*Schleiermacher*, of Hegel, startled the world, the former with his "Life of Jesus," the latter with his "Essence of Christianity." This led to a reaction, *Strauss*, 1808-1874. which divided into pietism and strict orthodoxy. The latter was strongly supported by the Prussian government.

Baron von Bunsen struck out a freer path, and the liberal elements of the evangelical church formed the Protestant Union for mutual help and protection. All efforts to enlarge and liberalize the Catholic church were thwarted by the dominant ultra montane and Jesuitical influences.

§ 627. Philosophy found great historians in Ritter, Trendelenburg, Kuno Fischer,

1776-1841. and most wonderful of all, Edward Zeller. Herbart, the successor of the immortal Kant, at Königsberg, sought a basis for pedagogy, in a more thorough acquaintance with the workings of the human

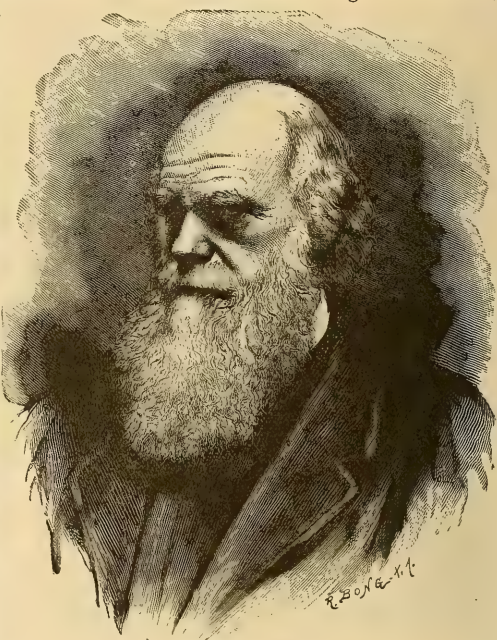
*Schopenhauer*, soul; while 1788-1860. Schopenhauer produced his famous treatise "The World as Will and Perception."

But the great triumphs of scientific inquiry, outside of the physical sciences, have been in the field of history. Von

*Ranke*, Ranke, Curtius, 1795-1886. Mommsen, Ihne, Waitz, Häusser, Giesebrecht are all illustrious names. More recently Harnack, by his magnificent work upon Christian dogma, has opened a new epoch in ecclesiastical history.

Savigny, with his history of "Roman Law in the Middle Ages," Bluntschli, with his "International Law," and Gneist, with his "Studies in Constitutional History," have added new lustre to German jurisprudence.

§ 628. But the natural and exact sciences have surpassed all the others, even *Alex. Humboldt*, history not excepted. Alexander von Humboldt leads the splendid column, and behind him come Arago of France, and Darwin of England, 1809-1882. land. Gauss, the founder of the new mathematics, the astronomers Herschel, father and son, Kirchhoff and Bunsen, the discoverers of spectral analysis, *Volta*, 1745-1822. Volta, inventor of the famous pile, Mayer, the expounder of the conservation of energy, Gay-Lussac, the chemist of France, and Faraday, the great sci-



CHARLES DARWIN.

tific genius of England, Helmholtz, master of many sciences, and Virchow, statesman and physiologist, renowned in both spheres.

*b. The Technical Inventions of Our Time.*

§ 629. The application of steam to machinery, and the utilization of electricity have transformed the world.

James Watt was the first to improve the rude steam pump into an instrument of universal power. Arkwright followed with his power loom. And the two Stephenson with the locomotive. Robert Fulton invented the side wheel steamboat, which has developed into the twin and triple-screw steamship, that crosses the Atlantic in

less than a week. The Alps are now crossed by four railroads, and the Rocky Mountains by as many. Sömmering and Morse, Joseph Henry, and George Grove, are names illustrious in the history of the magnetic telegraph, while Bell is associated inseparably with the telephone; Edison and Siemens with the electric light and the electric motor.

§ 630. *Political Economy.* Adam Smith was the founder of scientific political economy. His "Wealth of Nations," published in 1776, was an epoch making book. Malthus followed with a theory of population, exasperatingly true, and Ricardo, with a theory of rent, equally irritating and irrefutable. John Stuart Mill synthesized their contributions into a system, and Bastiat, in France, expounded them with optimistic additions and modifications, and rendered them exceedingly attractive by his wit and eloquence.



GEORGE STEPHENSON.

Fichte wrote a treatise, in which he urged a system of national restriction, and List followed him in his opposition to Free Trade. Roscher, of Leipzig, is the chief of the historical school, while Boehm-Bawertz of Vienna, has made an analysis of value, which has attracted great attention. Karl Marx, in his "Capital," attempted a scientific basis of socialism, and his difficult but powerful work is the Bible of the disorganizers of the present industrial system. Schulze-Delitzsch founded in Germany a number of co-operative societies, seeking, by practical measures, to relieve and benefit the working classes. A few have followed him, but the multitudes of Germany have followed Marx and Lassalle. In France, St. Simon and Fourier are the popular idols; these taught, early in the century, their theories of communal industry, and equal distribution of the products of labor. In Russia, Bakunin urged a system of Nihilism, or



the destruction of existing institutions as the beginning of a new social state. In England and America, these doctrines are gradually spreading, and their influence upon the democratic institutions of the two countries is watched with solicitude by students of political development.

§ 631. The naturalist, the merchant, the missionary, and the journalist have discovered the "Dark Continent." Barth of Hamburg, and Vogel of Leipzig, David Livingstone, and Henry Stanley, have won for themselves imperishable renown, by their African journeys. The coasts of Africa are lined with colonies, and the Free



DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

State of Congo occupies the heart of the continent on both sides of the Congo river. Speke, Grant, and Baker discovered the long-hidden sources of the Nile in great lakes beyond the equator, and the snow-clad mountains by which they are fed.

In 1884, Germany founded colonies in Africa, in spite of the savages and the Arabs, by whom the settlers were harassed. The troubles from these sources led to imperial protection in 1889. The Dutch and the English are strong in southern and eastern Africa, but they, too, have serious difficulty with the climate and the savages.

§ 632. Australia, which was first discovered by Captain Cook more than a century ago, now consists of a number of English colonies.

Polar expeditions still have their attractions. The fate of Sir John Franklin led to the expedition of Dr. Kane, and in recent times Nordenskjöld, Weyprecht, Greeley, and others have sought knowledge and fame among the ice-bergs and the northern lights.

§ 633. *The First Reichstag of the New Empire and the Political Parties.*

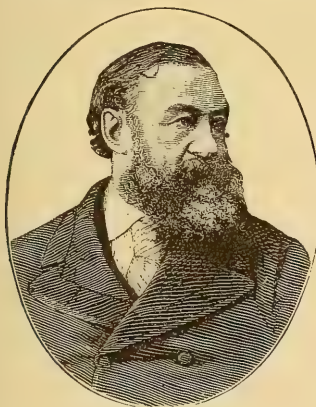
The creation of the German Empire astonished and perplexed the rest of Europe, especially as it was accompanied with the military overthrow of France. The center of political gravity had been removed from Paris to Berlin, and other nations regarded this change with suspicion and alarm. Within the empire, there were not a few who were opposed to a consolidated union under the lead of military Prussia. It was plain therefore, that the empire must fight for its life. In the first debates, a number of representatives showed a desire to restore the papacy to its old authority as compensation for this restoration of the empire. The leaders of this clerical party were Windthorst of Hanover, and Bishop Ketteler of Mayence. They called themselves the "Party of the Center," and



*Henry M. Stanley.*

gathered about them the discontented of every sort. But the Catholic church itself, was not free from dissensions. When the decrees of the Vati-

March 28, 1871. can Council were published, the great historian, Döllinger, addressed a letter to the arch-bishop of Munich, in which he declared that the new dogma of the infallibility of the pope was contrary to the Holy Scriptures and to the traditions of the Church. If it were adopted by the Catholics of Germany, it would be the beginning of a cancer, which would destroy the new empire, as the old one had been destroyed. In most of the German states, great care had been taken in legislation for the schools, and the emancipation of the school-system from the church had been partially or wholly completed. When, now, the affairs of Alsace and Lorraine came up for discussion, the clerical party attacked,



SIR SAMUEL BAKER.

with great bitterness, the changes which had been made in the instruction of the young.

§ 634. After the adjournment of the first Reichstag of the Empire, the great triumphal entry into Berlin took place. The festival was imitated in several of the German capitals, notably in Munich, where the King of Bavaria and the Crown-prince of the German Empire met together, and cemented the union of the south and of the north in an enduring personal friendship. Bavaria joined Prussia also in her resistance to the Ultra-montane clericals. In 1872, Prince Bismarck began the foreign policy which has preserved the peace of the empire for more than two decades. He convinced the other nations that Germany would not be aggressive, but would always be prepared. New fortifications were erected at Strasburg and in Metz, and the military system of Germany was reorganized according to Prussian models. Bismarck sought also the friendship of Austria, and obtained it in spite of the hostility of the aristocracy, of the ultra-montanes, and of the non-German races. In Russia the population was, for the most part, hostile to the new order of things in Germany, while the court was well disposed. This led Bismarck to promote the meeting of the

*September, 1872.* three emperors in Berlin, and led further to the proclamation of a cordial understanding between the three great dynasties of central and eastern Europe.

*May, 1872.* Nor was Italy neglected. A visit of the Crown-prince and of the Crown-princess of Italy gave opportunity to strengthen the alliance, to which the House of Savoy was so much indebted. The Scandinavian kingdoms were conciliated, and no pains were spared to heal the wounds caused by the struggle over Schleswig-Holstein.

§ 635. King Frederick William IV. had been surrounded by a High-Church party, who had helped him in his efforts to strengthen the Catholic church in Prussia. The Catholic clergy were really freer in Protestant Prussia, than in the Catholic states, and they had established everywhere in North Germany their monasteries and congregations. The minister of religious affairs, Von Mühler, was one of the leaders of this reaction, and one of the principle supports of the Catholic party. He was finally

*January, 1872.* driven to resign, and his place taken by Falk, an energetic, bold, and sagacious statesman, who introduced a new school law, which brought the entire system of instruction under the control of the state, put an end to the dependence of the public schools upon the church, and regulated carefully the part of the clergy in religious instruction, and the moral education of the young. This law was passed by the House of Representatives, but met with violent opposition in the upper House, not only from the ultra-montanes, but from all the forces of reaction. It required all the personal influence of Bismarck and Falk to carry through their proposition. An attempt was made to conciliate the Pope, by sending Cardinal Hohenlohe to represent the German empire at Rome, but the Pope refused to receive him. It was proposed to abolish the embassy, but Prince Bismarck preferred, he said, to regulate the differences of state and church by means of legislation. It was in this connection that he made the famous remark, "We are not going to Canossa!" At the same time he issued a manifest, touching the relation of the temporal government to the election of future popes. The German bishops now united in a declaration against the Chancellor. This produced great excitement, and was soon followed by a law abolishing the houses of the Jesuits, and excluding the members of the order from the German empire.



§ 636. Reforms, in other spheres, met with like opposition. The six eastern provinces of the monarchy suffered greatly from remnants of feudal privilege. These, the Prussian government determined to abolish, and introduced for that purpose a new system of local government. This was adopted by the lower House, but rejected in the upper by a solid phalanx of the nobility. Thereupon the government created twenty-five new members, by whose help the new system was voted through. King William consented to this measure with great reluctance, but it was the only means by which the feudal spirit could be broken. In the beginning of 1873, the Prussian bishops and the Prussian government were in deadly strife. New laws became necessary, by which the rights and liberties of the citizens could be protected against a priesthood armed with such great powers of discipline and excommunication. These laws provided for the scientific education of the Catholic clergy, for the confirmation of clerical appointments by the state, and for a tribunal, in which the conduct of the bishops might be revised. They were passed by the House of Representatives by a great majority, but in the House of Lords, the personal power and the impressive eloquence of the Chancellor were both needed to overcome the opposition. These laws, known as the MAY LAWS, embittered the strife between the bishops and the state.

§ 637. At once the bishops assumed a hostile attitude, issued addresses, memoirs, and declarations, prophesying that neither bishops, priests, nor believers would submit to such laws. They refused to permit the government to inspect the seminaries, in which young priests were educated, and to notify the state when they appointed a priest to a vacant parish, as the laws required. They continued to make their appointments without regard to the laws, whereupon the government forbade their appointees to perform the Church service. This provoked a conflict, which extended throughout the whole kingdom. Many arch-bishops and bishops were sent to prison; many were deposed, among them the two arch-bishops; and in the future, bishops were to be recognized and placed in possession of their revenues, only after taking an oath of allegiance, and promising to obey the laws. The first to take this oath was Bishop Reinkens, who was recognized by the Emperor as bishop of the Old Catholics, after he had been consecrated by the Jansenist bishop, Heycamp, in Rotterdam. The ultra-montanes now spread the rumor that King William did not sympathize with this new legislation, and the Pope addressed to him a letter, in which he expressed the opinion that the King did not approve of these measures, but "if he did, he should remember that they could only undermine his own throne." To this, William I. replied, "that the Holy Father was misinformed of German affairs, if he supposed that the German government was pursuing methods that the Emperor did not approve; the constitution required that all laws must receive his signature. He regretted that many Catholic clergymen persisted in a course of disobedience, making thereby the use of compulsion necessary. But the religion of Jesus Christ and the truth had nothing to do with this conduct. Moreover, he could not refrain from expressing his dissent, when the Holy Father declared that every baptized person belonged to the Pope; the evangelical faith which he, like his forefathers, and the most of his subjects, confessed, did not permit him to accept any mediator in his relations to God, except the Lord Jesus Christ."

§ 638. A new House of Representatives for Prussia was elected in 1873; the clericals appeared with increased strength, but the House, nevertheless, passed the

statute of civil marriage, making a civil ceremony obligatory upon Catholics and Protestants alike. But the bishops and clergy persisted in their opposition, until most of the bishoprics in Prussia were vacant; the prelates seeking in every way to avoid the application of the laws. The prince bishop, of Breslau, removed to Austria; the Arch-bishop of Posen went to Rome; and other deposed bishops left the country, in order to escape punishment.

The Prussian government closed the vicarages of the disobedient priests, confiscated the revenues of their parishes, transferred disobedient priests to other parishes, and deprived of citizenship such as persistently disobeyed the laws. The conflict between the Church and the modern State became sharper. The Pope issued a noteworthy encyclical, in which he declared the May laws null and void, and excommunicated all priests who submitted to the government. This led to the refusal of the Prussian state to any longer pay the sums that had been hitherto devoted to the Catholic church, and the constitution was changed so as to abolish the ambiguous clauses, under which the Church maintained her entire independence of the State. A statute against cloisters and religious orders and the various congregations, dissolved the nurseries of ultra-montanism; and a statute touching church property, placed the management of it in the hands of the laity; while still another statute gave the old Catholics a share in the property of the Catholic church.

§ 639. The Reichstag of 1874 contained, for the first time, representatives from Alsace and Lorraine. But the first motion made by any one of them, was a demand that the people of the two provinces should vote upon the question of annexation. At the same session, greater liberty was granted to the press, but the chief event was the passage of a new military law. The government proposed that an annual sum be  
 1874. determined, which the government might apply without further action upon the part of the legislature. This met with violent opposition. The King feared an outbreak of the old conflict. In the critical moment, Herr von Bennigsen offered a compromise, in which the annual sum asked for was granted for a period of seven years. This compromise was accepted, and a second conflict avoided. But the struggle between the Church and the State became all the more exciting, when Kullman attempted the life of Prince Bismarck at Kissingen; the Prince escaped with a slight wound. In the same year, Count Harry von Arnim, a former friend and ally of Prince Bismarck, was convicted of removing documents from the archives of the Paris embassy. The Count was not satisfied with the policy of the Chancellor toward Rome and France, and doubtless intended to make use of the documents, of which he had taken possession, to the detriment of the Prince.

§ 640. A reform next began in the evangelical church. Hitherto the power had been in the hands of the High-Church party,—a party distinguished for its narrowness and its intolerance, a party that did its utmost to cripple even the UNION, the greatest ecclesiastical achievement since the Reformation. But during the ministry of Dr. Falk, a new constitution was established for the church, based upon the principle of self-government and the predominance of the lay element. A system of synods was created for the districts and the provinces, and a general synod for the whole monarchy. But the High Church party opposed quite bitterly the new order, and men of liberal views were excluded from all important parishes, and from the theological chairs in the universities.

§ 641. Economic questions now pushed to the front. The Empire required greater revenues, and free trade was becoming unpopular. The Chancellor proposed an increase of the tax upon tobacco, and would have gladly made of tobacco a state monopoly. The more Prince Bismarck busied himself with the subject of taxation, the more he inclined to a system of protection. This led to a reorganization of the cabinet, the chief members of which had been ardent free traders. The Chancellor also proposed the acquisition of the railways by the empire, but this met with decided opposition from the other states. The railroads were however gradually acquired by the individual states, even Prussia purchasing most of the private lines. In 1876 a new code of laws was adopted for the empire, not however without a great deal of difficulty, and not until it was agreed that the imperial court should have its seat at Leipzig. The internal administration of Prussia was next subjected to a thorough reform, the purpose being to establish local government, and to introduce into the civil administration the co-operation of the citizens; in other words to pass from a system of police to a system of self-government.

§ 642. The alliance of the three emperors produced great anxiety in France, and led to a great increase of the French army. The French were evidently prepar-

1875.

ing for "a war of revenge." That peace was preserved was to no small degree the work of the Czar Alexander. To maintain friendly relations with Italy, the Emperor William made a journey to Milan, where the people received

Oct. 1875.

Kaiser White-beard, as they called him, with great delight. Austria, under the influence of Andrassy, was friendly, both to Prussia and to the German empire. Bismarck refrained from any interference with the oriental question, and pursued a policy of caution and of peace. But in 1877 he announced his determina-

1877.

tion to retire, declaring himself worn out with his great labors and fatigues. The Emperor gave him indefinite leave of absence, but would not consent to his resignation. Nevertheless, the nation was greatly disturbed by changes in the ministry, and by a great commercial crisis. Something like a panic was spreading

May 1878.

through the land, when an attempt was made upon the life of the aged Emperor, by Robert Hödel, a colporteur of socialist writings and newspapers. Prince Bismarck hastily drew up a statute against revolutionary agitators and societies, but it was not accepted by the Reichstag, as existing laws were deemed sufficient. But hardly had the Reichstag adjourned, when a second attempt was made upon the life of the venerable monarch. Hödel was a tramp from the lower classes, but Dr. Nobling,

June 1878.

the second assassin, was an educated man, and doubtless insane; yet as he had moved in socialistic circles, the socialists were held accountable for his deed. Fortunately the wounds of the Emperor, though painful, were not serious. The Crown-prince acted as regent, and, during his regency, the Reichstag was dissolved. The new assembly was convened in September, 1878, and immediately called to deliberate upon statutes for the suppression of socialism. These statutes provided for something like martial law, and met with violent opposition from the representatives of the people. They were finally passed, but the period of their operation was limited

1879.

to three years. The financial crisis and the arrest of industry had produced a strong reaction against free trade. An alliance between the manufacturers and the owners of great estates agitated for a protective tariff. This led to another change of ministry. Falk, the author of the church and school laws, retired,



and with him other liberal ministers; and the conservatives returned to power. But the people were not in sympathy with the plans of the Chancellor, as was shown in the next election. The ultra-montanes and the liberals returned in greatly increased

1881. numbers. Nevertheless, the session was noteworthy for its attempt at social reform, especially for its statute creating a fund for the relief of sick and injured artisans. This statute provided for an insurance fund, to be created by compulsory contributions. The project for tobacco monopoly was rejected; but the economic unity of Germany was perfected by agreements with Hamburg and Bremen, these

1882. two cities becoming members of the customs-union, although retaining for themselves a limited district, into which all goods entered free of duty. Alsace and Lorraine were also reorganized, and a viceroy appointed to govern them as imperial provinces. The colonial policy of the Chancellor met with great opposition, although he succeeded in obtaining a subsidy for certain steam-ship lines. France attempted, at this time, to form an alliance with Russia, but Bismarck maintained a



POPE LEO XIII.

good understanding between the two monarchs, who met together in the city of Danzig, and agreed upon changes in the Russian cabinet, which were a guarantee of peace. Changes in the Austrian ministry brought no change of foreign policy. Austria and Germany continued to be friends. Italy was brought closer by an agreement with the triple alliance; and the three emperors, with their leading statesmen, met together in friendly intercourse at the Polish town of Skierniewice, on the Russian frontier.

§ 643. *Revision of the Prussian Church Laws.*—The aged Pope Pius IX., after the death of Cardinal Antonelli, became still more subject to the influence of the Com-

1878. pany of Jesus, as Cardinal Simione, his new secretary of state, was a member of the company. But when Car-

dinal Pecci became Pope Leo XIII., a more conciliatory policy was adopted. The death of Bishop Ketteler of Mayence, and the retirement of Minister Falk, made the reaction and the reconciliation easier. The application of the May laws was left to the discretion of the government; the deposed bishops were recalled; the scientific education of the Catholic clergy was no longer insisted upon; the ecclesiastical court was abolished; the establishment of new seminaries for boys was permitted; and the charitable orders and congregations were allowed to return.

1880. The Church revenues were restored, and Prussia was once more represented at the Vatican. In response to these concessions, the Pope agreed that notice should be given to the government whenever a priest was appointed to a vacant parish. Bishop Kopp of Fulda, afterward Prince-bishop of Breslau, contributed greatly to the restoration of peace, by his mild and persuasive intervention. In fact, the system built up with so much difficulty had crumbled to pieces;

the weary struggle had ended in the defeat of the State. The Poles were a strong support of the Ultra-montane party, and the Prussian government was compelled to oppose, with energy, the spread of the anti-German agitation in the eastern provinces. This led to a vote of censure in the Reichstag, but the Prussian House of Representatives approved the action of the government, and passed a law for the encouragement of German settlements and the purchase of Polish estates in the eastern provinces.

**1884.** In 1884 Bismarck proposed that the manufacture of distilled liquors should be made a state monopoly, but the proposition was defeated. In 1886 the

**1886.** the struggle was renewed for the third time, touching the organization of the army. Bismarck asked for increased numbers, and for an appropriation covering a period of seven years. The Reichstag refused to extend the period beyond three years, whereupon it was dissolved, and new elections were ordered, which resulted in

**1887.** favor of the government, and in 1887 the new military law was adopted by a large majority. To meet the expenses required by this legislation, a heavy tax was levied upon distilled liquors. A change was made also in the time of military service. The members of the Landwehr were required to serve to their thirty-ninth year. And the members of the Land-sturm until the close of the forty-fifth year. Prince Bismarck, in the discussion of the military laws, pointed out the threatening situation of Europe, and developed, with great frankness, the principles

**1888.** of his foreign policies. "We Germans," he said, "fear God, but nothing else in the world!" In 1888 the legislative period for the empire was extended from three to five years, and the Prussian constitution was altered in the same way. The frequent elections had caused so much excitement, and developed so much bitterness, that it was hoped in this way to subdue the political fever that was consuming the nation.

§ 644. *Events in Bavaria and Brunswick.* King Ludwig II. was a prince of noble endowment, and of great patriotism; but in 1886 his eccentricities developed into insanity. A regency became necessary, and as his only brother, Prince Otto, was

**1886.** also insane, his uncle, Prince Luitpold, was entrusted with the government. The people were informed by proclamation of the tragic condition of affairs, and it was necessary to break the matter to the King. With difficulty he was persuaded to go with his physician to the Castle Berg, at Lake Starnberg. Arrived there he went with Von Gudden, his physician, for a walk in the park. His medical attendant left him for a moment, but returning, discovered the King in the lake. He plunged in to save him, but the King, with his tremendous strength, held him under the water until he drowned, and then drowned himself. Prince Luitpold was fortunately a sagacious and beneficent prince, whose conduct and bearing enabled Bavaria to pass through this critical period without a revolution. In 1884 Duke William of Brunswick died unmarried, and with him expired the elder House of Guelph. The Duke of Cumberland, son of the deposed King of Hanover, was the next heir to the throne. But the imperial council declared that a government, by the Duke of Cum-

**1884.** berland was not compatible with the imperial constitution, in as much as he claimed the throne of Hanover, and refused to recognize the imperial constitution. The election of a regent was ordered, and the choice fell upon Prince Albert of Prussia.

§ 645. *The Death of Emperor William.* On the 9th of March, 1888, William, the

1888. first emperor of the new empire, was gathered to his fathers in the 91st year of his age. A rich life, full of marvelous successes, was thus brought to an end. The recollections of the monarch reached back to the days when Prussia lay in ruins at the feet of Napoleon. The shame of Jena and Tilsit were his first memories, and yet he was called, in his old age, to lead his people to a pinnacle of greatness, of which the boldest had hardly ventured to dream. He remained to the last simple and straightforward, benevolent and gentle, always industrious, always faithful and conscientious. His last words were characteristic of his whole life. "I have no time now to be tired." A soldier, to his heart's core, he strove to preserve the peace of the

world, and to obtain the blessings of peace for his beloved country. It was reserved for him, after great unpopularity and misunderstanding, to fulfill the dream of the patriots, and to establish the empire, in which united Germany might work out a glorious destiny.

§ 646. The death of the aged monarch was all the more tragic, because of the certainty that his only son was soon to die also. The crown prince was suffering from a cancer of the throat, to cure which, physicians exercised their skill in vain. He was staying at San Remo, when the death of his father called him to the throne. He left the sunny south, traveled quickly to Berlin,

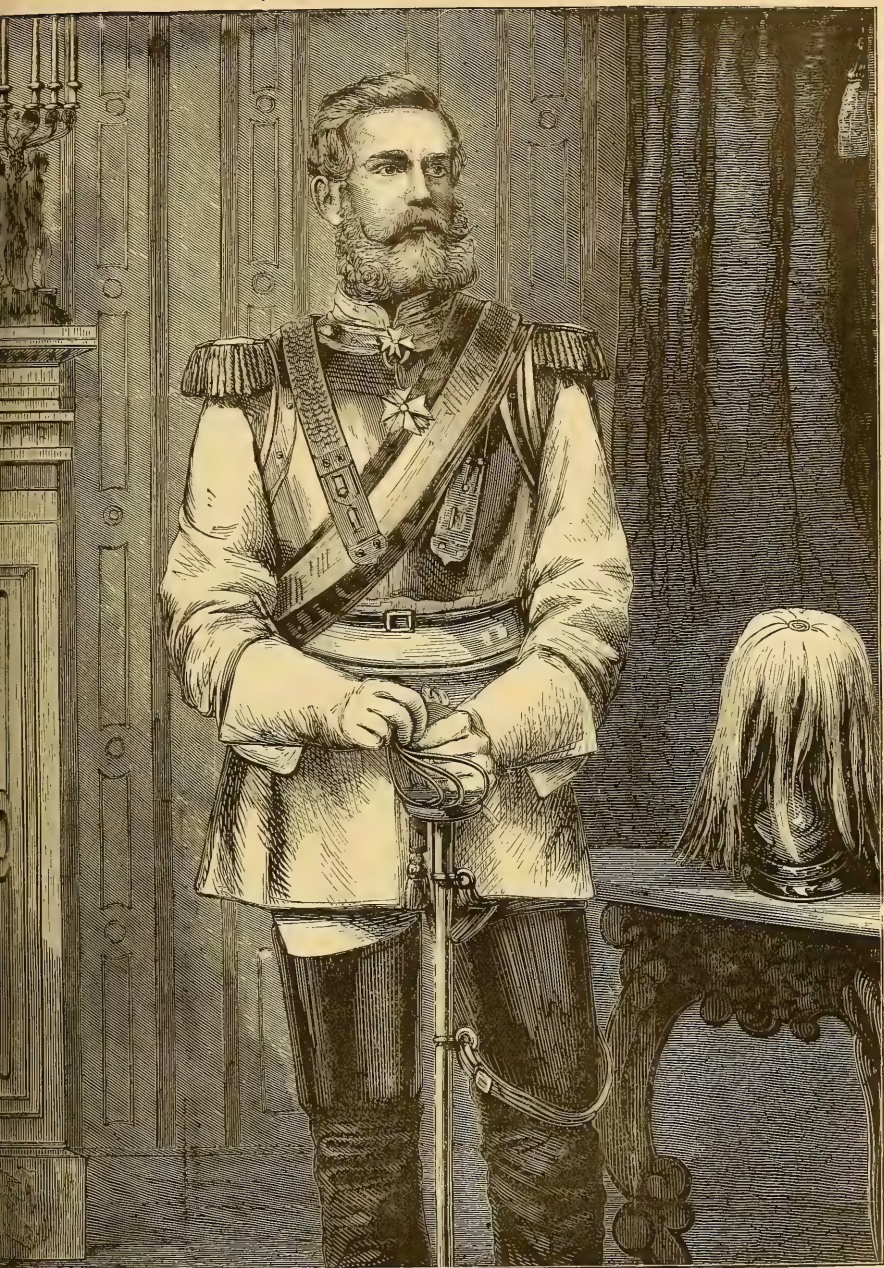


EMPEROR WILLIAM II.

and assumed the reins of government. Frederick III., the imperial sufferer, bore his pains with composure and fortitude, but his government lasted only ninety-nine days. A proclamation to the people, and a communication to Prince Bismarck, explained the principles by which he would be governed. A universal amnesty was granted.

June 15, 1888. Von Puttkamer, the reactionary member of the ministry, was dismissed for his interference with elections. On the 15th of June, 1888, Frederick died saying, "Learn to suffer without complaining." The imperial and the royal crown passed to his oldest son, William II. When the new emperor opened the Reichstag, and in





FREDERICK III.

(pp. 751.)

his speech declared that he would proceed along the path marked out by his grandfather, he was surrounded by nearly all the princes of Germany—at their head the Prince-regent of Bavaria, and the King of Saxony.

§ 647. The dying advice of William I. related to Russia. A good understanding with the Czar, seemed to him essential to the welfare and safety of Germany. This too was the policy of Prince Bismarck. Great therefore was the consternation in Europe, when the distinguished statesman resigned the chancellorship that he had created and made illustrious. The aged Moltke had already retired, but he could no longer “mount a horse.” Bismarck, though, was still vigorous. The immediate cause of his retirement is not yet known, but the differences seem to have concerned domestic, rather than foreign policy. General Caprivi succeeded to the vacant position, and Miquel became Minister of Finance. At first it was feared and believed that the changes portended war, especially as Russia and France seemed to be approaching an alliance. But the young Emperor, in spite of startling speeches made at military banquets, has acted with great circumspection in his dealings with other nations. He has renewed, to some extent, the friendship of his grandfather with the Czar, and maintained the triple alliance with Austria and Italy. The army was further increased and strengthened, although the Reichstag had to be dissolved, and new elections ordered, before this could be accomplished. The statutes against the socialists have been modified, a commercial treaty with Russia negotiated, the state of the schools inquired into, by a convention of distinguished educators, great public buildings and monuments erected in Berlin, and attempts made to improve the condition of the working classes by legislation and royal influence. Prince Bismarck, whose retirement has not withdrawn him from public interest, accepted recently (1894) an invitation to the imperial court. His appearance in Berlin produced an ovation, and his formal reconciliation with his sovereign excited the feeling, if it lacked the significance, of a great political event.

§ 648. *Austria.* In Feb., 1871, Austria was astonished by the appointment of a ministry notoriously hostile to the new German empire. They promised to establish a “truly Austrian policy.” Their plan was to increase the power of the individual legislatures, to make the provinces more independent, and to diminish the rights of the imperial council and the imperial ministry. The predominance of the German element in the west was to be overcome by a federal system, in which the Slavonic peoples would have the decisive word. To accomplish this, the legislatures already in session were dissolved, and new elections ordered. At the very moment when the two emperors met together, and the two imperial chancellors were seeking to bind together Germany and Austria, Francis Joseph signed the decree which forced the Germans of Austria to fight for their political existence. “The United States of Austria” did not however manage to get born. When the Bohemian constitution was laid before the Emperor of Austria, he refused to confirm it, declaring that all changes must be made upon the basis of the existing constitution. The ministry at once resigned. The action of the Emperor was attributed to the influence of Count Beust; great was the surprise, therefore, when he was removed from his position as chancellor, and sent as ambassador to London. But as he was not Austrian-born, as he was a Protestant, and did not belong to the old nobility; as he had abolished the *concordat*, and entered into friendly relations with the German empire, he had become exceed-



ingly unpopular with the court party, and he was sacrificed to appease their wrath.

§ 649. Nevertheless, Beust's policy was continued by his successor, Count Andrassy. Prince Auersperg became minister-president of Austria, and the two statesmen determined to support the constitution and the empire against the decentralizing

1872.

influences of the Slavonic peoples. In 1872 a reform bill was passed by both Houses, which gave the election of the imperial council to the people, instead of the state legislatures, and which limited the latter to purely domestic affairs. This bill was bitterly opposed, but supported by Count Andrassy, it received the imperial sanction. The relations of Church and State were regulated no longer by negotiations with Rome. Statutes were prepared, which abolished the *concordat*, and protected the rights of the State against the Church. These statutes were passed by the imperial council, and signed by the Emperor. In 1873, Austria was shaken by a financial panic, a consequence of extravagant speculation, and the hunger for riches everywhere prevalent. All classes of the people suffered heavy losses, and many families were completely ruined. The World's Fair, which was opened the same year, could neither conceal nor repair these losses, although it surpassed in magnificence, all that had been done hitherto in this direction in London or in Paris.

1873.

§ 650. The creation of the duplex kingdom Austria-Hungary excited the centrifugal forces in the mixed races along the Danube. Not only the Magyars in Hungary, but the Slavs in Bohemia strove for political independence. The creation of Franz Deak found many enemies in the extreme Magyar party. These would fain have broken the bonds that united the two sections of the empire, and have obtained for Hungary a political independence, in which she would have shared nothing in common with Austria, but the personal authority of the Emperor. But Tisza, the leader of this party, found it best to modify his demands, and in 1878 a new agreement was reached, touching the economic affairs of both states. Deak died in 1876. Events in the East made it still more difficult to preserve peace in Hungary, the Magyars

1878.

wishing the empire to form an alliance with the Turks, while the Slavs insisted that the empire should co-operate with Russia. But Andrassy carried the government safely through the crisis. His policy was not to abandon the lands of the Balkan to Russia, but to maintain the free navigation of the Danube, and to secure the Austrian frontiers against Slavonic agitators. This led to closer relations with Germany, and Andrassy's successor, Count Kalnoky, pursued the same policy. In

1879.

1879 however a reaction took place. The old federal-clerical party obtained the upper hand. Slavs and Magyars became powerful enough to drive the German language and German literature from the schools, and even the University of Prague was so changed, that lectures were delivered in the Bohemian as well as in the

1888.

German language. The common-schools and gymnasia in Hungary and Transylvania were threatened with destruction, and a great bitterness broke out among the Germans of the empire. The imperial house was greatly afflicted by the

1889.

sudden death of the Crown-prince Rudolph, the only son of the Emperor. He died by his own hand.

§ 651. *Russia.* The Czar Nicholas strove for the dictatorship of Europe, but his son, Alexander II., sought to reform Russia, and to bring it up to the level of other civilized nations. The emancipation of the serfs brought with it great changes of so-



cial life. The army too was reorganized; universal service was introduced, and substitutes were no longer accepted. The railroads were increased in number, and carried to completion. The system of taxation was improved; the privileged classes were taxed, and the different classes of society were brought nearer to a civil equality. Great attention was given to the improvement of the laws and of judicial administration, to the development of commerce, of industry, and to the education of the young. Alexander II., also desired to alleviate the miseries of war, and to that end convened a congress of statesmen in Brussels, in the year 1874 to determine upon the outlines of international law. But while Russia was pursuing a policy of peace toward the west, it was extending its territory in the distant east. The Khan of Khiwa had captured some

**1873.** Russian subjects, and refused to give them up. Russia regarded this as a case of war. The Prince was conquered, and the Russian military authority was established in central Asia. The Russian columns, under General Kaufman, marched to the capital of the country under incredible difficulties and fatigues, and on the 10th of June, 1873, Gen. Kaufman entered the city as a victor. This campaign greatly increased the authority of Russia in central Asia, and England looked with anxiety at the Russian advances. In the following year, Russia annexed Ferghanistan. This

**1880-1881.** opened the way to Merv, long regarded as "the key of India."

§ 652. *The Netherlands and Scandinavia.* The Dutch and the Scandinavians have in recent times, little influence upon European politics. In Holland the two sons of William III. died early, and left the king a young daughter, who, according to the constitution, might rule in Holland, but not in Luxemburg. A bitter war took place between Holland and the Sultan of Atchin at Sumatra. The Sultan, trusting to English protection, had inflicted great injury upon the commerce and the colonies of the Dutch. Holland thereupon declared war, but at first suffered great losses. Finally she was victorious, and the entire island came into her possession.

**1873.** Belgium, under the enlightened King Leopold II. was disturbed by a violent struggle **Leopold II. 1865-** between the liberals and the ultra-montanes. The schools were the bone of contention. Cabinets changed frequently, now composed of liberals, and now of clericals. Repeated labor troubles at the great industrial centres added to the confusion and the excitement. In Denmark, under Christian IX. conservative ministries

**Christian IX.** have quarreled uninterruptedly with the liberal majorities of the House **1863-** of Commons, over the army and the appropriation bills. This has led to frequent dissolutions, changes of ministry, and refusals of supplies. In Sweden, where Oscar II. succeeded Karl XV., in 1872, the main questions have been the reor-

**Oscar II., 1872-** ganization of army and navy, and the reform of the revenue system. Norway, which is almost independent in its legislation and administration, although united to Sweden nominally, has maintained, in recent times, its old dislike to Sweden, and its inclination for republicanism and for independence.

§ 653. *France, Thiers.* After the Commune of Paris had been suppressed, the National Assembly in Versailles presented a picture of confusion and despair. The republican form of government was distrusted by the representatives and by the people. Legitimists, Bonapartists, Orleanists, and Republicans of many varieties united to establish a republic, because they could unite to establish nothing else. But this was regarded as a transient expedient, from which each party hoped to emerge a conqueror. The German armies were still in France. The costs of the war were yet unpaid. But

Thiers had moderation enough to subdue the passions of the people, and to suppress the cry for a war of revenge. A disturbance of the existing order, it was plain, could lead only to anarchy, and to civil war. Thiers was therefore indispensable. And his threat to retire brought the Assembly more than once to terms. He was thus able to retain, for the government, the appointment of the mayors of the largest cities, and he managed to keep on good terms with the republicans and monarchists. The brilliant success of the national loan showed that he possessed the confidence of the people.

1878. The subscription for this loan proved the exhaustless wealth of the nation and the splendid credit of France abroad. This enabled Thiers to pay off the war indemnity, and to hasten the removal of the German soldiers from the country, and also to bring order into the National finances, and to fill the empty treasury.

§ 654. Thiers next proceeded to reorganize the French army. He hesitated to introduce universal service, and compulsory attendance at school, and the richer and more cultivated classes could, under the new system, escape from service in the army. When Jules Simon introduced a school law of a liberal character, it was so fiercely attacked by the clergy, that it was withdrawn. The increased army required increased revenues. An income tax was decided upon, but as this was extremely unpopular among the wealthy classes, Thiers determined to return to the old protective system, which had been



CASIMIR PÉRIER.

abolished under the second empire. The opposition to this was so violent that Thiers and the whole ministry resigned. But it was impossible to agree upon a successor, and a compromise was reached, according to which the revenue laws<sup>o</sup> were adopted with some amendments, and the existing commercial treaties were abrogated. With this increase of revenue, it was possible to reorganize the army. But it soon appeared that the National Assembly no longer represented the nation. The filling of vacancies gradually increased the power of the republicans, but the monarchial elements combined to lay aside the republican character of the government, and they baffled all attempts to establish permanently a republican system. On the other hand, the republicans, with their leader, the fiery Gambetta, were little content with the conservative republic. They demanded new elections, declar-

1872.

ing that the existing assembly had been called to make peace only. Great as were the services of Thiers, he found but little recognition among the violent partisans of either side. The royalists united with the clericals to bring about his overthrow. The Bonapartists were hunted down by military tribunals. The French were certain that they had been conquered, not by German superiority, but by the treason of their own commanders. Even Ulrich, the hero of Strasburg, was censured by a military court, but Bazaine was chosen as the chief victim. His surrender of Metz was charged as trea-



MARSHAL MACMAHON.

son, and he was held responsible for all the sufferings of France. For months he was held a prisoner, and then brought to trial in a court-martial, presided over by the Duc d' Aumale. But before the trial was begun, Europe was busy with the fate of President Thiers. At the very moment that he was paying off the last installment of the war indemnity, he lost all favor with the French Assembly. When the Emperor, Napoleon III., died in 1873, the supporters of the old monarchy became even more active. Thiers, who had declared for the conservative republic, the republic of "honest men," was forced to rely upon the left, the conservatives having gradually abandoned him. But the left had in it a large

number of radicals. Thiers' position was rendered more difficult by the opposition of the church. Pilgrimages had been revived; superstition was rife; the Protestants were attacked. This conduct of the clericals excited great opposition among the republicans. Grévy resigned his position as president of the National Assembly. This was the prelude to the fall of Thiers. When he called the moderate republican, Casimir Périer, into his cabinet, the assembly passed a vote of censure. Thiers then sent in his resignation, which was accepted, and Marshal MacMahon was chosen president of the republic. The Duc de Broglie, the soul of this



intrigue against Thiers, was now charged with the construction of the new ministry.

**1873.** The schools were left in the control of the clergy, and pilgrimages to miraculous places were organized as national festivals.

§ 655. The ruling party in the National Assembly next tried to form a fusion of the two Bourbon parties. The Count of Paris traveled to Frohsdorf, in the name of the Orleans branch, to make submission to the Count de Chambord, the head of the family. But the fusion was by no means complete. One party desired the grandson of Charles X. to be called back without conditions; the other demanded pledges and assurances that King Henry V. would govern as a constitutional monarch. At last they united in a program which recognized the principle of a hereditary monarchy, but reserved the essential rights of a constitutional state, with two legislative chambers, and also reserved for France the tri-colored flag. But the Count declared to his friends that he must retain the white standard of the Bourbons, that he could not become the legitimate king of the revolution. Thus the great scheme, which had cost so much, was shattered to

**Oct., 1873.** pieces upon the obstinate apathy of an aged prince, without ambition and without energy. Thus there never was in France a King Henry V.



DUC DE BROGLIE.

§ 656. Reluctantly enough, the monarchists now united to confer upon MacMahon the dignity of president of the republic, for a period of seven years. While MacMahon was thus elevated to the chief magistracy of France, Bazaine was a prisoner, defending his life and his liberty before a military court. He was found guilty, and condemned to death with the loss of his military honors. But his judges united in a recommendation of mercy. MacMahon thereupon commuted the death-punishment to twenty years' imprisonment, upon the island of St. Marguerite, opposite Cannes. **Aug., 1874.** Bazaine's rich Mexican wife successfully planned his escape from the island, and Bazaine died in Madrid, in 1888.

§ 657. The Duke de Broglie now attempted a change in the constitution, but his plan for a senate found no favor in the eyes of the Assembly, and he was obliged to retire. A period of confusion followed, out of which slowly emerged the party of Republicans, who established the constitution of 1875. This provided for two cham-

bers, a chamber of deputies elected by the people, and a senate of three hundred members, of which seventy-five are elected by the National Assembly, and the others by electoral colleges, in the different departments. The two chambers unite to elect the president for a period of seven years. A president may be re-elected. He is commander-in-chief of the army; he appoints all officers; receives all ambassadors; executes the laws; and appoints his cabinet, which is responsible to the Senate and to the House of Deputies. The elections of 1876 were strongly Republican. A liberal ministry, under Dufaure, came into power, and sought, by opportune reforms,

**Feb., 1875.** to promote the national welfare. Waddington, the minister of education, was especially active to improve the school system. The hierarchy had denied the right of the government to establish universities and to confer degrees, and had acquired this latter right for themselves. Under Waddington it was reclaimed for the state.

§ 658. The president, swept away by the republican excitement, attempted to conduct the government with the help of the liberals. But the clericals began to increase, and to acquire a great influence with him. This produced a crisis with the Assembly. Dufaure retired, and Jules Simon took his place. The clerical conservative party made desperate efforts to restore what it called "the government of moral order." The bishops and the Catholic priests declared that it was the duty of France to defend the independence of the pope, and even Pius IX. issued an address, describing himself as a prisoner. The Chamber of Deputies petitioned the government to put an end to this agitation of the bishops, and Jules Simon, in the debate, expressed the opinion that the so-called imprisonment of the Pope was a fable. The result was that Simon was reproached by the president for his conduct, and compelled to resign. A new cabinet was formed, with de Broglie as president. The chamber now declared upon Gambetta's motion that the representatives of the people had no confidence in a cabinet that was not free in its actions, and not determined to govern according to republican principles. A message of the President thereupon prorogued the chamber for a month, in order that "the excitement might subside." Meanwhile the government would maintain the public peace. This was a prelude to a dissolution. With the cry, "Vive la republique," and with a dignified appeal to the people against "this policy of reaction and of adventure" the representatives dispersed.

§ 659. Now began a reign of proscription. Republican officials were dismissed by the score; the state's attorneys were commanded to prosecute the journals for every disturbance of the public mind. Next came the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies. The liberal members answered with an address to the people, urging them to stand by the republic in the coming election, to take place within three months. The watch-word of the Republicans was "re-elect the three hundred and sixty-three." The agitation was furious, and the excitement reached fever heat. The sudden death of Thiers stirred the heart of the whole nation. His last writing was a defence of the republic, and a refutation of the charges made against the liberals by the conservatives. The government and the clergy strained every nerve to win the victory, and although only three hundred and twenty Republicans were elected, in October, they were so greatly in excess of the conservatives, that they were able to compel the President either to govern according to the constitution, or to resign his position. Finally, as

the commercial and financial world became exceedingly restless, Marshal MacMahon determined upon a parliamentary government. He named a cabinet composed entirely of Republicans, in which Dufaure was president. Waddington was minister of foreign affairs, Leon Say minister of finance, and Bardoux minister of instruction. This was the greatest and most dangerous crisis that the republic had encountered, but it was successfully overcome. The executive and the legislative departments were brought into harmony, the appropriation bills passed, and the revenue system perfected. The great Exposition was then determined upon, and laws were passed to prevent the recurrence of arbitrary government. The public schools were withdrawn more and more from the influence of the clergy, and put into the hands of lay teachers. But all this was repugnant to the feelings of MacMahon, and when it was proposed to make changes in the command of the army, he resigned and retired to his estates. The two chambers came together and elected to the presidency Jules Grévy, the president of the House of Deputies. Gambetta was chosen president of the chamber. The aged Dufaure retired from the ministry, giving up his position to his colleague, Waddington.

§ 660. *Gambetta's Ministry and Death.* The new cabinet was moderately progressive. Concessions were made to the public demand for an amnesty of the condemned communists, and a steady resistance was made to the ultra-montane excesses. Ferry, the minister of education, proceeded energetically against the Jesuits, and the other orders of the church. Ferry's measures were rejected by the Senate, yet the government did not lack weapons wherewith to resist these dangerous societies. Gambetta now began a violent agitation for election reform. He proposed to abolish the districts, and to elect deputies by departments, hoping thereby to destroy or to neutralize local influences, and thus to increase republican strength. The Senate however rejected the measure, greatly to Gambetta's chagrin. But the elections were so strongly in his favor, that he was made minister president in a cabinet composed wholly of his  
 1881. creatures. His career was brief. The Chamber of Deputies refused to support him, and he resigned in disgust. He died a short time afterward of a wound, the origin of which is wrapped in mystery.

§ 661. *Foreign Entanglements. The New President.* France perceiving with jealousy the growth of other powers in the Mediterranean Sea, turned to Tunis for compensation. The Bey was compelled to accept a French protectorate. In Madagascar, an island of eastern Africa, a war broke out, which cost great sacrifices and  
 1882-1885. brought little glory. The Tonquin expedition was not more fortunate. The French had obtained a footing in eastern Asia, and established a colony in Cochin China. Eager to possess the Red River, they pressed forward, until they came into conflict with the Emperor of Anam, and afterward with China. They succeeding in retaining Tonquin, but at great expense. The expedition and its consequences wrecked the ministry of Ferry, and also that of Brisson.

§ 662. The two chambers united in 1884 to revise the constitution. The republic  
 1884. was declared permanent and final. The members of the dynastic families were made ineligible to the Presidency. A new system, for the election of senators, was adopted, and Gambetta's project of election by "list" was agreed to. Grévy was re-elected president, and a new cabinet was formed, in which Freycinet and Boulanger were the chief figures. General Boulanger, the minister of war, had



become exceedingly popular. Many looked upon him as the coming Napoleon, who would soon bury the outworn republic. In 1886 the princes of the former reigning families were expelled from France. But in 1887 a scandal was discovered in the

1882. highest circles, which led to the resignation of President Grévy. His son-in-law, Wilson, was deeply implicated in a shameful traffic in decorations, offices, and public contracts. Grévy was guiltless, but the people clamored for a sacrifice. Sadi Carnot, the grandson of the famous general of the revolutionary epoch, was elected to the vacant place. He is a man of spotless reputation, moderate views, and staunch Republican ideas. Floquet, a radical Republican, became the president of the new cabinet.

§ 663. *Switzerland and Italy.* The Swiss Confederation was also the theater of violent troubles between Church and State. In Geneva, the home of Calvinism, Mermillod was made bishop by the Pope. This provoked a violent agitation among the Protestants, and the government resolved upon energetic resistance to the ultra-montane aggressions. In Basel and Solothurn, Bishop Lachat excommunicated and deposed a priest, because he would not accept the doctrine of infallibility. Thereupon the cantonal government required him to reinstate the priest, and when he refused, the Bishop was himself deposed. The conflict in Berne was even more violent, but these efforts of the ultra-montanes found little support outside of the German Catholic districts. A revision of the constitution had long seemed necessary to sagacious and patriotic men. The federal authority was too weak; it was necessary to confer upon the federal government, the control of the army and of the public schools, to establish

1872. justice, and to create a uniform system of revenue. The first proposition for an amended constitution was defeated by the ultra-montanes and the defenders

1874. of states rights, but the second attempt succeeded, and the new constitution was adopted. The federal government assumed control of the railways, and the manufacture of distilled spirits was made a federal monopoly. Switzerland also assisted in the building of the St. Gothard railroad, joining with Germany and Italy

1882. to support the company, by which this magnificent work was projected and completed.

§ 664. *Italy and the Vatican.* The position of the Pope in Italy, in consequence of the guarantee law, and of the principle of "a free church in a free state," was really more advantageous than that held by him in the days of his temporal sovereignty. Nevertheless, he spoke of himself as a prisoner, and pleaded poverty. Meanwhile, the Italian court took possession of the Quirinal, the foreign ambassadors took up their residence in the eternal city, and the constitutional government developed tranquilly. The names of Victor Emmanuel, Cavour, and Garibaldi appeared in the public places and in the main streets, while their statues and medallions were seen in

1870. many places. The Mont Cenis tunnel was completed and opened for travel about the same time that the Italians entered Rome. This was intended originally to unite Italy and France. But the course of events promoted an alliance between Italy and Germany. The Italian army was strengthened and reorganized, and new fortifications were erected. Thus protected against attack, the government pro-

1872. ceeded to abolish the monasteries in the old papal states. In spite of the opposition of the clerical party, and the threats of a new crusade, the statutes were adopted almost unanimously by the lower House, and with little opposition in

the upper House. While the French were on the point of declaring the Count de Chambord King of France, a ministerial change was taking place in Italy, which seemed to favor the ultra-montanes and a French alliance. General La Marmora published a pamphlet at this juncture, reflecting upon Prussia. Nevertheless, the people clung to Victor Emmanuel, and Victor Emmanuel adhered firmly to the

1878. alliance with Germany. But in 1878 the first king of modern Italy was gathered to his fathers, and Pope Pius IX. soon followed him. Leo XIII., the new pope, was more conciliatory. The new king, Humbert, inherited his father's popularity, and also his father's earnest desire to maintain the constitution and the liberties of the people. The land was not free from socialistic agitation, and the people were startled and indignant when the King was attacked by a Neapolitan assassin, and his minister Cairoli severely wounded. The death of the old hero, Gar-

1892.ibaldi, liberated Italy from many difficulties. But the party struggles in Parliament led to many ministerial crises that were injurious to the public welfare. Depretis, a patriotic liberal, was entrusted no less than eight times with the constitu-

1887. tion of a ministry. When he died in 1887, Crispi, a man of great ability, became minister president and minister for foreign affairs. Touched with the spirit of the time, Italy was active in establishing colonies. One of these brought the government into conflict with King John of Abyssinia, a conflict which lasted several years, and exposed the Italians to serious loss.

§ 665. *Spain.* King Amadeus struggled for eighteen months with the Cortes and with the Spanish army, and then resigned his throne. After his departure for Italy, the Spaniards determined upon a republic, in which Castelar, Figueras, and Salmeron were the conspicuous figures. They determined to call a constitutional convention, and to establish the fundamental law of republican Spain. Meanwhile, an executive committee, chosen by the Cortes, should assist the government with their council. The members of this committee desired a conservative republic. Castelar and his companions desired a republic like that of the United States of America. This provoked a sharp conflict, and the two parties in Madrid appeared armed. This was a

1873. signal for Figueras to dissolve the executive committee. Serrano and his adherents fled across the frontiers, and the election for the constitutional convention was completed. As the Conservatives stayed away from the polls, the Democrats were triumphant. When the convention met, it started to transform the ancient Spanish monarchy into a federal republic of thirteen states, each of the latter having a separate government. But while the convention was debating, the land was approaching anarchy; and to make things worse, Don Carlos had marched into the mountain

1873. regions of the north, proclaimed himself to be King Charles VII., and demanded the allegiance of all Spain. He soon commanded an army of twelve thousand men, led by bandits and fanatical priests. The Basque population of the Pyrenees, which delighted in civil war and adventure, easily lent itself to the cause of reaction and of religious bigotry. Supported by English moneys, and favored by the French government, Carlos conducted a cruel civil war against the Spanish republic. But affairs in the south and in the populous cities of the coast were no better. The federal republic, for which the Cortes had decided, created some strange illusions, and the population of the south declared their independence of the government at Madrid. In Cadiz, in Malaga, in Carthagen, in Barcelona, the lower classes took pos-

session of the government, and began to attack the lives and the property of the wealthier classes. Castelar's ideal republic became a horrible caricature of the American system. The ministry was powerless, the Carlists victorious in the north, the red republic triumphant in the south. The government was now compelled to make great changes. The centralized monarchy was retained, and the federal system abandoned; martial law was proclaimed in the rebellious provinces; Salmeron returned to the government, and soon restored tranquility, except in Carthage, where civil war continued. Castelar was now convinced that his policy was not feasible. He assumed once more the presidency of the ministry, and clothed with dictatorial power, he proceeded against the insurgents with great energy. Yet the agitation continued in the south for a long time, while the Carlists, secretly supported by the monarchists of France, extended their power and their influence in the north. And now the Cubans rebelled, seeking to separate "the pearl of the Antilles" from Spain. Castelar steered bravely through this sea of difficulty, though men doubted whether he was strong enough to master the radical and democratic elements in the Cortes. Consequently, the men of the revolution of 1868, Serrano, Topete, and others quietly formed a committee, and determined to proclaim a dictatorship, if the socialists made it necessary.

§ 666. And it became necessary soon enough. Castelar was not able to maintain his authority against the Carlists and the insurgents. His army was too weak, and his leaders too untrustworthy. Moreover, Salmeron, the president of the Cortes, had no faith in Castelar's policy; and when the legislative assembly stood by their

1874. president in a vital matter, Castelar resigned. The army now came forward with a proclamation against anarchy. This was brought about by the committee already spoken of, formed by Serrano, Topete, and Sagasta. Pavia, a determined young general, marched into the hall of the Cortes, at the head of a few soldiers, and dissolved the assembly. He then assembled the chiefs of all parties, and urged them to create a new government. Alfonso, the son of Isabella, was too young to admit of the restoration of the monarchy, so a kind of military republic was established. Marshal Serrano became the head of the executive power, and Sagasta, the president of the ministerial council. The Carlists were still powerful in the north. Moriones, the republican general, had been compelled to retire southward, but under the new government, the Carlists were driven back. The thought of a Bourbon restoration be-

1874. came now the topic of discussion. On the 30th of December, 1874, General Campos raised the monarchical standard, and proclaimed Alfonso XII. King of Spain. The army of the east was soon joined by the army of central Spain; the ministers protested, but resigned; a new government was formed by Canovas del Castillo. Serrano hastened to France, and the young King entered Madrid in triumph. The new King was little inclined to the ideas of the time, but he saw that it was impossible to rule Spain in the spirit, or by the method of his mother Isabella. Only with the standard of constitutional monarchy could he hope to triumph over Don Carlos. The

1876. Cortes were convened to establish a new constitution, while he himself proceeded with the army to put down the insurrection of the north. Don Carlos was defeated, and compelled to abandon Spain. Meanwhile the government and the Cortes were restoring to the kingdom its former character, the Catholic religion was not re-established just as the papal nuncio desired, but a number of Protestant communities in Madrid and in the provinces were dissolved, and the universities



deprived of their newly acquired liberty. The revenues of the clergy were increased, and the instruction of the children placed in their hands. Foreigners of Protestant confession might practice their religion and erect their schools in Spain, but bigotted officials and bishops reduced these rights to a shadow. Spain was distressed financially, the Cuban insurrection having deprived the mother country

1878. of much revenue, and the insurrection having led to great outlay. In 1878, King Alfonso was married to Marie Mercedes, daughter of the Duke de Montpensier. But the young and beautiful queen died a few months after. King Alfonso was at first completely under the influence of Canovas and his reactionary ideas. But growing weary of this tyranny, he turned to the liberals and called Sagasta to the ministry. In 1885 a Spanish mob attacked the residence of the German minister in Madrid; the Spanish cabinet apologized, but maintained its right of sovereignty over the Caroline islands, which were claimed by Germany. Prince Bismarck offered to refer the matter to Pope Leo XIII. The Pope decided in favor of Spain,

1885. though giving to Germany freedom of navigation and of the fisheries, and the right to use the island as a naval station. But in 1885 the young King died. It was a great loss to the unfortunate land, for he had shown unusual capacity for government, a clear head, and a strong will. His second wife was Maria Christina of Austria. After his death, she assumed the regency, and soon gave birth to a prince, who, as Alfonso XIII., is the heir of the Spanish throne.

§ 667. *The Eastern War and Russia.*

The inability of the Sublime Porte to establish peace and to maintain order in the empire, the shattered condition of

the Turkish finances, and the abuses in the provinces, were used by Russia to separate to herself the provinces back of the Danube, between the Adriatic and the Black Sea. The deep gulf between the Mohammedan land-holders and the Christian peasantry, naturally furthered the Russian agitation. Sometimes the appeal was made to religious prejudice, and sometimes to race hatred. Insurrections began in Herzegovina,

1875. and in Bosnia. Women, children, and old men fled with their herds and their possessions into Austria and Montenegro, while the young and middle aged men under Mukhtar Pasha, marched against the Turks. Volunteers hurried to them from Servia and Montenegro, and they were soon in possession of all the mountain passes. Austria urged the mediation of the powers. The mediation was without success. For the insurgents refused to accept the promises made in Constantinople, unless the European powers became responsible for their fulfillment. Meanwhile



MUKHTAR PASHA.

Austria, Russia, and Germany united to restrain the insurgents, and to relieve the inhabitants of Turkey in Europe from their wretched situation. A note was prepared by Count Andrassy, and submitted to the Turkish government. But although supported by all the great powers, it was without practical effect. Hostilities were renewed with even greater energy. Bulgaria and Prince Milan appeared ready to join the insurrection. The Slavonic population looked to Russia for guidance and for freedom. The three imperial powers were therefore persuaded that further steps were necessary. Bismarck, Gortschakoff, and Andrassy united in a *memorandum* which was submitted to the Porte. The Turkish government was urged to carry out the promised reforms in the interests of peace, and intimations were given in the *memorandum* that delay would lead to energetic action, upon the part of Austria, Russia and Germany.

§ 668. But the uprisings of the Christians and of the Slavs had meanwhile stirred up the fanaticism of the Mohammedans and the hatred of the non-Slavonic races. German and French ambassadors were attacked by Turkish mobs, and even in the city of Constantinople fanaticism attacked the Sultan Abdul Aziz, who, in the eyes of the Moslems, was the source of all calamity, and should therefore be deposed. The softas, or pupils of the priestly schools, marched to the palace, and demanded the removal of the Grand-Vizier, Mohammed Pasha. The frightened Sultan yielded, but

1876. eager for revenge, he retired to his innermost apartment, when his ministerial council determined to depose him also. The Sultan was attacked at night, and murdered in his own apartment. A few days afterward, two leaders of the revolution, Raschid and Hassein Amri, were themselves murdered. These events provoked a terrible excitement, especially in the army. The uprising in Bulgaria was put down amid horrors that drove Europe into excited protest. The rulers of Servia and Montenegro, relying upon the help of Russia, had joined the insurrection, and were marching against the Turks. But they were not equal to the combat, and in Constantinople they were determined upon resistance, because they expected help from England. The Tory government sent a fleet to the Dardanelles. The war in the west and in the north continued, while Russian and English diplomacy contended with each other in Constantinople. Murad V., the successor of Abdul Aziz, was now deposed, and the crown given to his brother, Abdul Hamid II. The new Sultan was welcomed as "the reformer of Turkey." Meanwhile the Turkish arms were successful. The Russians proclaimed Prince Milan King of Servia, but the Turkish commander Abdul Kerim broke through the Servian army and marched toward Belgrade. The Czar Alexander now assured himself of the support of Germany and Austria, at any rate, of their friendly neutrality. The European ambassadors, eager to avert war, proposed a series of reforms, to be carried out under the supervision of a European army of six thousand men, stationed in the oppressed provinces. To this the Turkish government would not accede. The conference, which had been convened, was dissolved because of this

1877. refusal; the ambassadors left Constantinople, and the Czar Alexander believed that the time had come to follow the voice of his people.

§ 669. In April the Czar left his capital for the army, and the Pruth was crossed at night at three different places. Prince Carl of Roumania declared his kingdom independent, and marched to the field with the Russians. At the same time, Russian troops from Asia crossed the Turkish frontier, and attacked Ardachan. The neglect

of the Turkish commander-in-chief, Abdul Kerim, made it easy for the Russians to cross the Danube, also and to compel the Turks to retreat. Early in July, the Russians were in possession of all the land from Sistova to Gabrova, so that the Arch-duke, Nicholas, could establish his headquarters at Tinova, and Prince Tscherkaszky could undertake the re-organization of Bulgaria. Nicopolis was besieged and taken. General Gurko next captured the Shipka Pass, and the Russian cavalry were soon

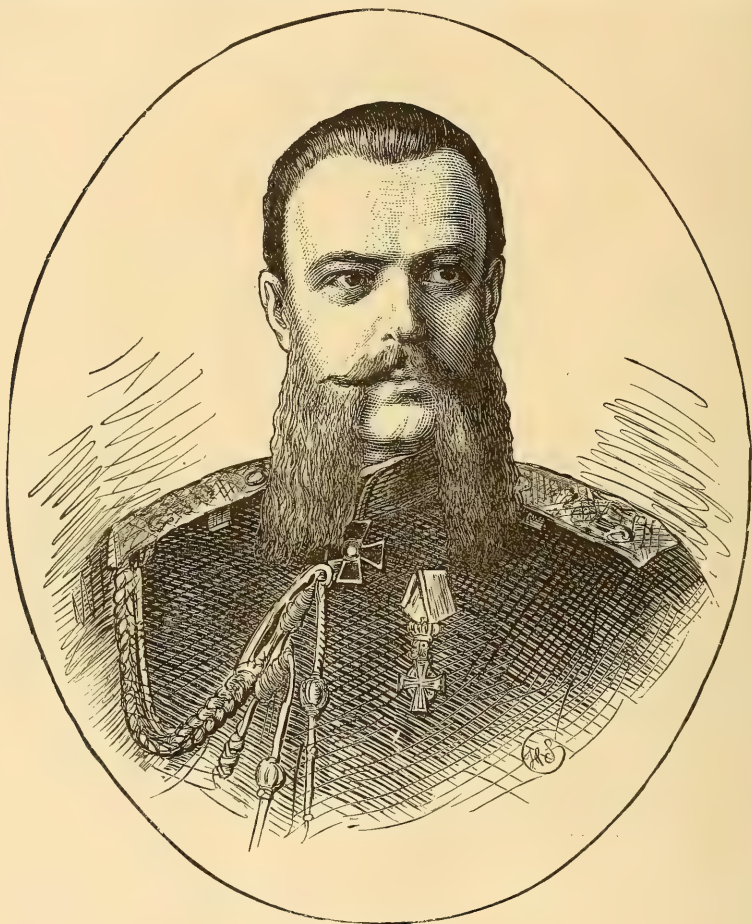


ABDUL HAMID.

in the vicinity of Adrianople. It looked as if the campaign would be over in a few weeks, and the Russians be in Constantinople. At this juncture, Abdul Kerim and the minister of war, Redif Pasha, were removed from their places and banished. Mehemed Ali was appointed to command the army of the Danube, and Osman Pasha took possession of Plevna and surrounded it with strong entrenchments. The Russian general, Krüdener, sought in vain to drive the Turks from these fortifications. He was



forced to retire, after losing eight thousand men. Osman Pasha now surrounded Plevna with a ring of fortifications, which made the city almost impregnable. General Skobeleff displayed great military genius, but not until General Todleben took part in the siege, was any impression made upon the Turkish defences. He determined to



GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS.

hold them fast and starve them out. It looked as if the catastrophe of Metz would be repeated. But Osman Pasha was a braver soldier than Bazaine. When food and powder failed him, and hunger and disease was waisting his troops, he determined to

venture all upon a sortie. If he must capitulate, he would capitulate on the battlefield. After a desperate struggle with the Russians and the Roumanians, he was driven back into Plevna, and compelled to surrender. He had defended the city for six long months, and fell covered with glory; but his fall decided the war. Turkey was in its last gasp. A circular letter to the powers of Europe besought their intervention.

§ 670. The Russians did not delay to make the most of their victory. In spite

1877. of the weather and of the winter, they marched forward, surrounded the Turkish troops in the Schipka pass, and compelled them to surrender. Thirty thousand men fell into the hands of Russia, Adrianople was taken, and the Turkish line of retreat cut off. Suleiman Pasha moved southward with the remnant of his army, hoping to escape by sea. The truce of Adrianople was signed by Turkey in despair, and a few weeks afterward the peace of San Stefano was agreed upon, in which Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro were declared independent, and Bulgaria was raised to a tributary, but otherwise self-existent principedom, with a Christian government and a native militia. Turkey was also required to pay fourteen hundred million rubles as war indemnity, or if she preferred, to cede to Russia certain territories in Asia. Bosnia and Herzegovina were to have a government of their own, with reforms guaranteed by the European powers. Bessarabia was to be returned to Russia. England, angry at the conduct of Russia, demanded a congress, and Russia thought it best to yield. An assembly of notables convened in Berlin, the like of which had not been seen in Europe, since the famous Congress of Vienna. Bismarck, Gortschakoff and Andrassy represented the three empires. Beaconsfield appeared for England, Waddington for

1878. France, Corti for Italy, Mehemed Ali for Turkey. After violent debates, it was agreed that Servia and Montenegro should retain their old boundaries, but Bessarabia remain in the hands of Russia. All confessions were to have equal rights, (even the Jews,) in the new independent principedom. Russia was to retain Batoum, but Bulgaria was shorn of nearly all that was given to her in the treaty of San Stefano. In a word Turkey in Europe was restored. The treaty of San Stefano would have destroyed it. Nevertheless the fortresses on the Danube were razed to the ground, and the Danube made free to its mouth. South Bulgaria or East Roumelia, as it has since

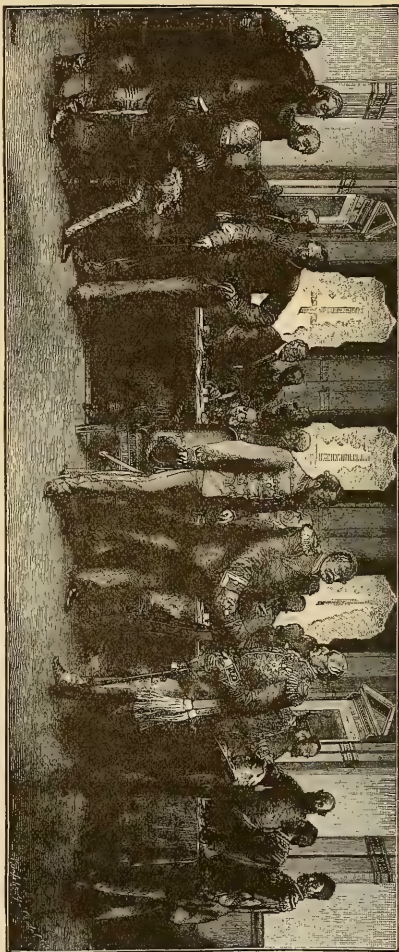


SULEIMAN PASHA.

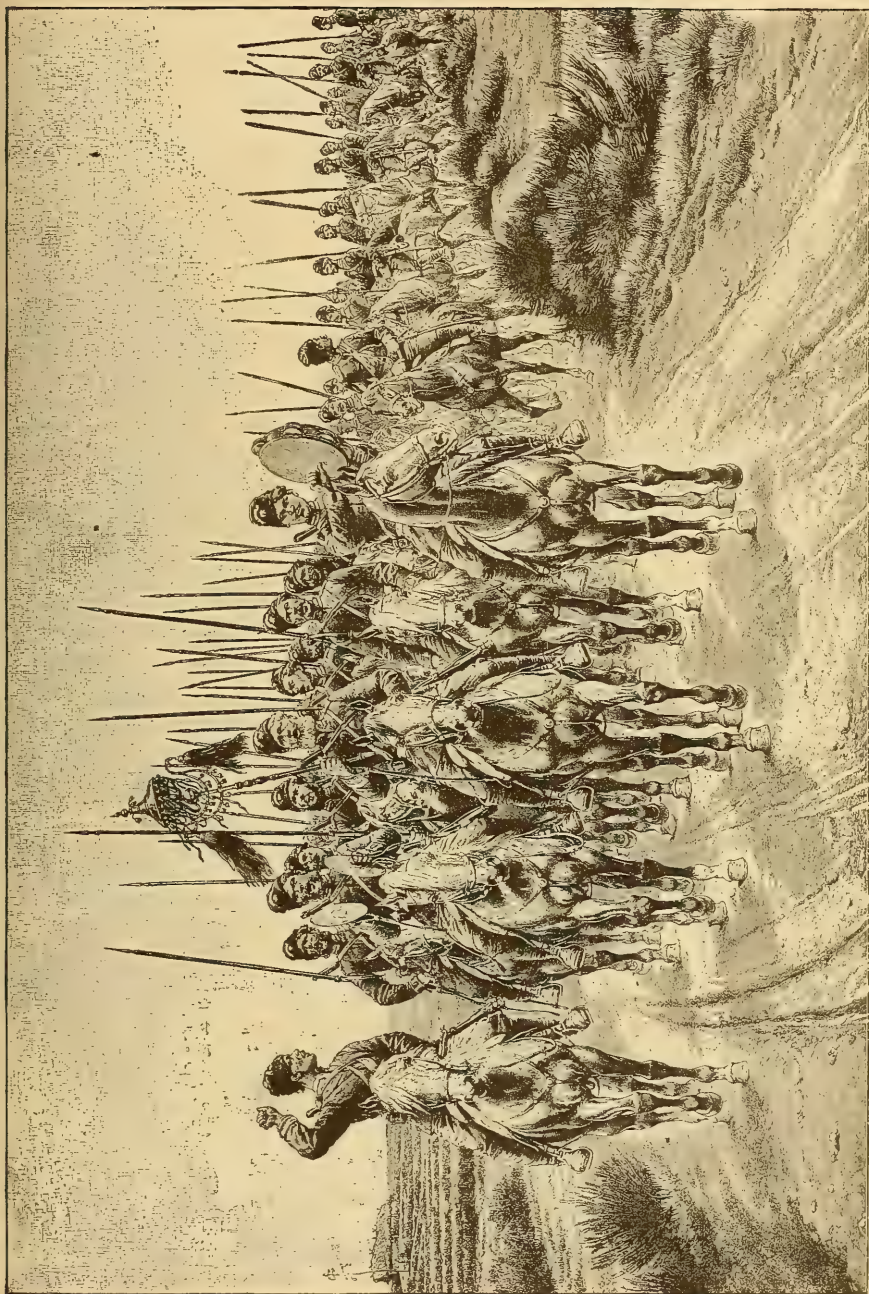
been called, remained to Turkey, but its future welfare was guaranteed by the European powers.

§ 671. The Princes of Servia and Montenegro expected to win Bosnia and Herzegovina, the provinces in which the rebellion began, but they were disappointed. Andrassy's policy was to incorporate these provinces with Austria, and this plan met with the favor of the Congress, for the government at Vienna obtained permission to occupy both provinces; in doing so, however, they encountered a stubborn and a bloody resistance. The following year Austria, with the consent of Turkey, occupied Novi Bazar, without prejudice to the sovereign rights of the Sultan. The Albanese formed a league to prevent this, but Turkey, acting in conjunction with Austria, sent Mehemed Ali to put down the insurrection. He was attacked by the people and murdered. England was not satisfied to go from the Congress with empty hands. She obtained from Turkey the island of Cyprus, and the promise to introduce reforms into Asia Minor. In return, the English ministry pledged themselves to support Turkey in retaining her Asiatic provinces. Yet the Congress of Berlin had not established lasting peace. The pan-slavic party was not satisfied. Many said openly that Russia should defy the Congress. The party of peace prevailed, and a separate treaty was made with Turkey, touching the costs of the war and other unsettled questions. The Congress however created a coldness between Petersburg and Berlin. Prince Bismarck was accused of luke-warmness toward Russia, and the Prussian king of ingratitude; and the meeting

KALNOCKY.  
SILVALOFF.  
GORTSCHAKOFF.  
D'ISRAELI.  
ANDRASSY.  
BISMARCK.  
CONGRESS OF BERLIN, 1870. (*Anton von Werner.*)







of the two emperors did not remove the misunderstanding. Bulgaria framed a  
 1879. parliamentary constitution, and chose the Prince of Battenberg, a nephew of the Czar, as hereditary monarch. The Prince accepted the election after it had been ratified by the European powers and in Constantinople. But the new state had to pass through many crises and parliamentary storms. The well-meaning Prince found his position one of great difficulty and danger. The separation of Bulgaria into North and South Bulgaria was a source of great confusion. The interference of the Russians kept the land in turmoil. Russian generals entered the Bulgarian ministry; civil and military offices were held by the Russians to such an extent that great jealousy resulted. At last an insurrection broke out in Philipopol. The union of the two Bulgarias, North and South, was proclaimed, and Prince Alexander declared ruler in East Roumelia. This was an open violation of the treaty of Berlin, but Russia, formerly so earnest in the creation of a united Bulgaria, now looked on quite coldly after the national feeling had turned against Russian interference. But the extension of Bulgaria created anxiety in Servia, and the government at Belgrade declared war against the neighbor state, alleging a violation of her frontiers. She was  
 1886. soon glad to make peace, and Prince Alexander reached an understanding with Turkey, by which he became ruler over East Roumelia. This completed virtually the union of the two Bulgarias, yet in spite of his success, Prince Alexander became the victim of a Russian conspiracy; he was attacked by soldiers and carried into Russian territory. He returned to Sofia and received an enthusiastic welcome from the people, but his humble letter to the Czar received such ungracious answer, that he abandoned all hope of a friendly relation with Russia, and gave up his throne. The  
 1887. Bulgarian parliament then chose Prince Ferdinand of Coburg to be their ruler, but Russia refused to recognize him, and the Bulgarian confusion continued.

§ 672. While Russia was thus discontented with the results of the war, she was suffering also from the terrors of revolution. The Nihilists had declared war against all existing institutions in state and society. The mixture of civilization and of barbarism among the wealthier classes greatly furthered this revolutionary movement. The corruption of the administration and of the aristocracy drove many of the better minds into opposition. Outbreaks among the students, murderous attacks upon those in high place, defalcations and bribery in office, were all proofs of internal disease. The chief of police, General Trepoff, was shot by a young girl named Vera Sassulitsch, and  
 1878. his successor, General Mesenzeff, was murdered by an unknown hand. Vera Sassulitsch was acquitted by the jury and, with the help of her friends, escaped to Switzerland. Prince Krapotkin fell a victim to a Nihilist assassin. The Czar himself was attacked in the vicinity of his palace, and within two months his life was attempted, once on a railway journey to Moscow, and once in the winter palace in St. Petersburg. Finally Count Loris Melikoff was made chief of police, and clothed with the powers of a dictator. For a while peace and safety reigned, and the twenty-fifth year of the reign of Alexander II. was celebrated with great pomp and rejoicing. But this jubilee was the last happiness of his life, and the last pleasant incident of his eventful  
 1881. reign. The next year he was mortally wounded by an explosion of dynamite, and carried dying to the imperial palace. The trial of the perpetrators discovered an abyss of crime and of conspiracy, which included all classes of Russian so-

ciety. The Arch-duke Alexander now became czar. Prince Gortschakoff, who had  
1883. conducted Russian affairs for thirty years, died not long after. The  
new reign fluctuated between absolutism and liberalism, between peace and war, be-  
tween pan-slavonic ideals and alliances with western powers. The old understanding



ALEXANDER III.

with Germany could not be restored, and in the Baltic provinces a crusade was begun against German speech, German school, and German church. Russia, externally immense, and internally diseased, is one of the startling problems of the modern world.

§ 673. *England under Gladstone.* England, as we have seen, reaped great advant-



ages from the Napoleonic wars, but, with the exception of the Crimean war, she has, since 1815, kept aloof from continental entanglements. Nevertheless, her neutrality has not been so carefully guarded as to prevent misunderstanding. Her sympathies were evidently with Denmark, but it did not help the Danes; and Russia took advantage of the Franco-German war to set aside important articles of the treaty of Paris. The sympathies of England were also with the Confederate States of America in the war against the Union, and led to the Alabama question, which was finally submitted to arbitration, and decided against Great Britain. This peace policy was not caused altogether by a regard for the interests of commerce and of manufacture, but the English



BENJAMIN DISRAELI, LORD BEACONSFIELD.

army was neither as strong nor as well organized as the armies of the Continent, and the English Parliament was little disposed to follow the examples of the military powers. Indeed the House of Peers was not to be persuaded to abolish the purchasing of commissions in the army, so that the evil custom was finally destroyed by royal warrant. And yet the progress that Russia was making in Central Asia, and the increasing confusion in Turkey, made war at any moment possible. Moreover, ever since the Khiva war, the English have watched Russia with exceeding jealousy. England likewise has had her conflicts with the Roman Catholic church, and these conflicts have acquired new significance through the Oxford movements.

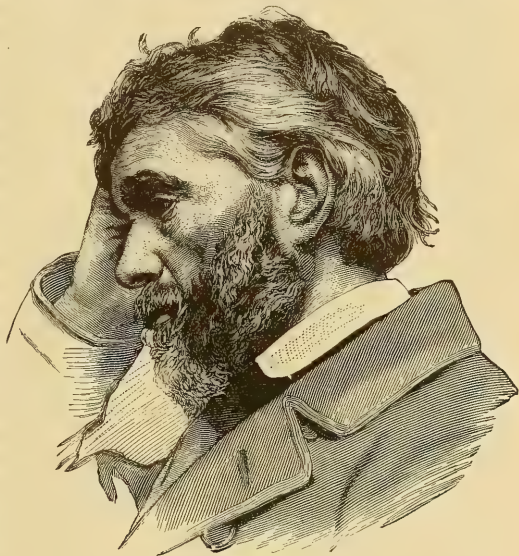
which began in 1833. John Henry Newman, Henry Manning, William George Ward, and other powerful leaders of the Anglican church, became Roman Catholics; and of late years the ultra-montanians have acquired great influence among the English people. It was hoped that the disestablishment of the English church in Ireland would lead to peace, but the hope was disappointed. The conciliatory policy of Gladstone, in the Irish question, provoked much opposition in England, while it bore but little fruit in the Emerald Isle. The Tories enlarged their influence, and looked confidently to

1874. the next election, and their confidence was well founded. In 1874 the Tory leader, Benjamin Disraeli, was summoned by the Queen to form a new ministry. Gladstone retired to private life, to his classical and religious studies. He startled both his friends and his enemies by his powerful attack upon the Vatican decrees. Meanwhile the new minister turned away from domestic affairs, and devoted an attention to foreign politics, unknown in England for many years.

§ 674. *The English in Africa and their Colonial Policy.* In her naval and colonial system, England held fast to the traditional policy by which she had become the might-

1873. iest of maritime and commercial peoples. As formerly in Abyssinia, so now in 1873, on the west coast of Africa, she established her power anew with the native Ashantees. The rich coast, which stretches from the Gulf of Guinea to Sierra Leone, and which comprises the "golden shore," has been the scene of commercial activity

ever since the discoveries of the Portuguese. Different nations have established colonies, built factories and forts along this coast; among the rest, Portuguese, Dutch, Danes, and Englishmen. The neighboring negro tribes were subjugated or made tributary to the Europeans. Among these, the wild and warlike Ashantees occupied the chief place. In the course of years, the English became most powerful on the "gold coast," but entered into a war with the Ashantees, which threatened to destroy them in West Africa. Finally the savages were compelled to yield. General Wolseley, with strong forces and powerful artillery, defeated them in a series of battles. They were weakened by disease and lack of supplies, and finally compelled to retire to their principal city Kumasi. The English now determined to conquer this city, and to attack the King in the heart of his country and of his people. In spite of the difficulties of the territory, intersected as it was by swamp and thicket, the march was undertaken and brought to a successful conclusion. The natives fled at Wolseley's approach, and abandoned



THOMAS CARLYLE.

1874. Kumasi, setting fire to it as they fled. The King perceived the futility of further warfare, as all the neighbor tribes had joined the English. He sued for peace, renouncing all his claims to the British territory, and agreeing to pay fifty thousand ounces of gold to defray the costs of the war. The English also compelled him to abandon human sacrifice, the traces and monuments of which had filled them with horror. A brilliant reception greeted the governor and his troops when they returned to England. A few years later, the same General Garnet Wolseley sailed again to South Africa to put down the Zulus. These had made war upon the English, under their cruel king, Cetewayo. When the Transvaal republic was incorporated into the English territory, they claimed a portion of the frontiers for themselves. They fought desperately, but were finally defeated, and Cetewayo was carried a prisoner into Cape Town. Among the volunteers who fought with Wolseley was

1879. the young Prince Napoleon. In a reconnoissance, he met an early death. But the English government found its chief difficulty in Egypt. Ismail Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt, had beggared himself and his country, by mad extravagance and hateful misrule. To escape from his difficulties, he sold his share in the Suez

canal to the British government, and thus brought the canal under the joint control of the English and the French. The European powers now meddled with the administration of the country. This produced great dissatisfaction among the Egyptian people. They attempted, by a military insurrection and a revolution, to escape this foreign influence.



THE SOUDANESE WAR.

Ismail Pasha was deposed, and his feeble son, Tewfik Pasha, brought to the throne.

But the national party, which desired the absolute independence of Egypt, grew every day more dangerous. The head of this party was Arabi, who, by an uprising of the soldiers, compelled the Khedive to change his ministers, to establish a new constitution, and to create a parliament. Arabi himself became the minister of war. The Egyptian fanatics now began a tumult in Alexandria, in which the English consul was wounded, and many Europeans were murdered. Thereupon the English war vessels bombarded the city,

1882. and Arabi withdrew his troops to Cairo. Alexandria, half consumed, was occupied by the English. Arabi was deposed by the Khedive, but as he was supported by his army, he continued to rule the land; and he would have given the English great trouble, if he and his troops had not revealed an incompetency and a



cowardice that exceeded all expectation. At Tel-el-Kebir, the Egyptian army was utterly defeated by General Wolseley, Arabi himself taken prisoner and banished to Ceylon. England then proceeded to bring the land into closer relations, but the task was exceedingly difficult, especially when El Mahdi, the false prophet, lifted the standard of rebellion in Nubia. The English General Gordon was shut up in Khartoum and

1885.

lost his life.

Her colonial system is the glory of England. All parties agree touching her foreign possessions, especially touching the Indian empire, which is governed with the utmost sagacity. The remarkable journey that the Prince of Wales made to India, in order to acquaint himself, by personal observation, with the vast empire of the East, strengthened the bond between England and her colonies. Upon his return, the imperial title was added to the English crown, a triumph, which brought to Disraeli his title of Lord Beaconsfield. In the years 1878 and 1879, Afghanistan, a frontier land of India, and its great trading cities of

Kabul and Kandahar, were the scenes of bloody conflict and rebellion, in which doubtless the Russians played their part. The English finally predominated, but only after a costly and difficult campaign. Burmah too, where the bloodthirsty and insane king, Thibau, spread about him a reign of terror, was conquered in a short campaign and annexed to the British empire.

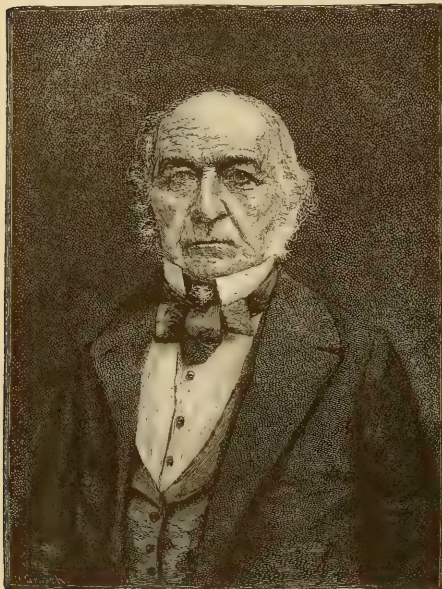
§ 675. Yet in spite of these successes, the public opinion of England was opposed to the expensive war policy of the Tories. Parliament and press were soon in opposition. To be wandering abroad, while so many wounds were bleeding at home, created discontent; and the imperial policy of Beaconsfield, which increased only the glory of the administration, was in conflict with parliamentary traditions. The Prime-minister was quick to perceive the public mind. He determined to dissolve the lower House and to order a new election. But in vain. The majority of those elected were Whigs, Liberals, and Radicals. He saw that his time was out, and he resigned his office. The



*C. B. Adams*

Queen summoned Gladstone, the head of the Liberal opposition, to form a new cabinet.

**1880.** Disraeli devoted himself to literature. His romance, *Endymion*, the background of which is the party life and the political current of his time, was the fruit of his literary activity, and the conclusion of his long life. He died on the 19th.



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

of April, 1881. Gladstone however gave all his strength and experience to the pacification of Ireland. Conspiracies and secret societies tormented the land. Agrarian murders and outrages of all kinds were daily events. The authority of the law had vanished; society was drifting to anarchy. Home rule was the battle cry of the Irish independents. Parnell, the Irish leader in the English Parliament, represented the cause of his people, while the land league in Ireland wielded a power greater than that of the government. Gladstone sought to pacify the country, partly by reform measures, and partly by coercion. An Irish land law was framed, with a view to restore humane relations between the tenant and the landowners. But pacification seemed impossible; uni-

**1882.** versal horror spread through the British kingdom, when the state secretary Lord Cavendish, and the under state-secretary Bourke

were murdered in Phoenix Park, Dublin. Gladstone was successful in the passage of a reform bill, perfecting the act of 1867. This bill increased the number of electors, and the representation of the cities. To obtain the parliamentary support of the Irish, Gladstone was inclined to grant Home Rule. He proposed a separate Parliament and a separate ministry, some such relation as now exists between Austria and Hungary. But this project of Gladstone appeared to the English people too bold, too violent, and too dangerous. When new elections were ordered, he was defeated and immediately resigned. Lord Salisbury now formed a Tory cabinet, but the tumult in Ireland continued. Frequent conflicts took place between the government and the Irish malcontents, which became the subject of violent debates in the House of Commons. Parnell, after a triumphant defense of himself against the charges of the *London Times*, was driven from public life by an exposure of his private immoralities. This led to a division of the Home Rule party. In 1893 the Liberals returned to power, but early in 1894 Mr. Gladstone was compelled, by increasing infirmities, to retire from the ministry and from active life. Lord Roseberry succeeded him as Prime-minister, and Sir. William Harcourt as leader of the House of Commons.

## IV. POSTSCRIPT.

## 1. GERMANY.

§ 676.



WILLIAM II. succeeded to the thrones of Prussia and the German Empire, June 15, 1888. His father had been greatly beloved, and his tragic death caused sincere and almost universal grief. This sorrow was mingled with anxiety, for the young Emperor was believed to be rash, ambitious, greedy of power, restless, and unreliable. Field marshal, Count Moltke, resigned the command of

the army in August, and Count Waldersee was named as his successor. In September, the publication of extracts from the diary of the late emperor produced great excitement; and this was not allayed in the speeches of the ruling monarch, and the conduct of Prince Bismarck. Widespread strikes, in the coal regions of Westphalia, increased the public concern, especially as the Emperor's movements were so uncertain. Early in the year 1890, the Reichstag rejected

**Jan. 25, 1890.** the bill against the socialists, and was thereupon dissolved. In the same year, an International Labor Congress convened at Berlin at the instance of the Emperor; but the fruit produced was poor and scanty. On the 18th of March, Prince

**March 18, 1890.** Bismarck resigned his posts. He ceased to be chancellor of the empire that he had created, and prime minister of the Prussia that he had saved. General Caprivi was appointed to succeed him, but the excitement in the country was very great. The settlement of the Westphalian strikes relieved the people of one reason for alarm, and the policy of the new chancellor toward the socialists gradually justified itself by its results. Laws protecting the laborer were enacted, and the employment of women and children was regulated by carefully framed statutes. On the other hand, the national pride was soothed by the cession of the little patch of island held by Great Britain, in return for German possessions in Africa. Heligoland be-

**1890.** came German territory in 1890. The next year the sequestrated funds of the Roman Catholic church were released, and the accumulated \$40,000,000

**Feb., 1891.** appropriated to church uses. Count Moltke died the following April, deeply regretted, because so greatly beloved. Few great soldiers have been so revered; few have been so simple in their lives, and so little elated by their triumphs.

In June, 1891, the triple alliance, between Austria, Italy, and Germany, was renewed for a period of six years, and when the past regulations on the French frontier were greatly relaxed, the people began to believe in peace. Confidence in the young emperor, and his good intentions, gradually gained ground.

The new ministers, however, found their task a hard one. The representatives of the people, who are divided into numerous factions, opposed their projects, and they were finally forced to appeal to the nation. After a bitter contest, a majority for the new army bill was obtained, and Caprivi still remains in power. Recent events point to a better understanding with Russia, a new commercial treaty

**1894.** having just been completed between the Kaiser and the Czar. And Bismarck, who in his retirement, has been a somewhat savage critic of his successor's



policy, made, in 1894, a journey to Berlin, in which great pains were taken to proclaim the reconciliation of the monarch and the former minister.

## 2. FRANCE.

§ 677. The two great events in the history of France, since 1888, are the rise and fall of General Boulanger, and the bursting of the Panama mud volcano. General Boulanger managed somehow to get himself adored by a great following. Puffed up with popularity, he defied his superiors, who answered with a court of enquiry.

*March 30, 1888.* The General, though found guilty, was powerful enough to overthrow the existing ministry, and to bring in M. Floquet. In July, the exasperated soldier offered a resolution, demanding that Parliament dissolve; and when this was rejected almost unanimously, he ostentatiously resigned. A duel with M. Floquet cost him no little blood, and much reputation; for the soldier was wounded severely, and the lawyer escaped unhurt. Nevertheless, he was re-elected to the Chamber of Deputies, and succeeded in defeating the Floquet ministry, and driving it from power.

The Tirard cabinet, which followed, proved equally hostile to his intrigues. And *1889.* Boulanger, fearing arrest, fled to Brussels. In August 1889, the Senate, acting as a High Court of Justice, found him guilty of plotting against the state, and sentenced him to imprisonment for life. In the October elections, the Boulangists dwindled to forty-five deputies, and when the hero of unfought campaigns, the great soldier of to-morrow, committed suicide, his party, once so pretentious, perished like a dream.

If Boulanger had been a man of pith and purpose, instead of an inflated adventurer, the Panama Canal excitement would have made him great. For it nearly wrecked the French republic. The Exposition of 1889 had been a notable triumph. In spite of the absence of crowned guests, the capital had rejoiced in multitudes of visitors, and in a brilliant series of fêtes and spectacles. The Pope moreover had signified his acceptance of the republic, and the uprising in Paris and vicinity, had been suppressed with ease. The republic had fairly gotten itself established, when the Panama explosion covered it with mud, and threatened to shatter its foundations. In

*1892.* May, 1892, the company reported that 900,000,000 francs were necessary to complete their undertaking; just before this, the United States had protested emphatically against the control of the canal, by a non-American state. The supposed suicide of Baron de Reinach, led to many startling disclosures, implicating members of the cabinet in gigantic schemes of corruption and bribery, along with senators and deputies, de Lesseps and his son, Eiffel, the great engineer, and many others. Ministry succeeded ministry in quick succession, and desperate efforts were made to implicate President Carnot. Fortunately for France, the latter had clean hands, and the republic survived the crisis.

Like Germany, France has returned to the system of protective tariffs, and has negotiated a commercial treaty with the United States; like Germany she has greatly enlarged her army, until it includes practically the able-bodied men of the nation. Each citizen must serve three years, students of science and arts alone excepted; and the total period of service now covers twenty five years.

Like Germany, she has her social troubles also, her strikes, her bomb-throwers, and her anarchists. Nevertheless, the republic is now in the twenty-fourth year of its

existence, a fact of no mean significance, in a country which has been without a stable government ever since the revolution of 1789. The first empire lasted only fifteen years, the second just nineteen. The restored monarchy endured but fifteen years, and the Orleans dynasty a scant eighteen. If France can abandon schemes of conquest and revenge, and devote her genius to the triumphs of philosophy, of art, of literature, and of peace, she will resume her place at the head of civilization, and in the van of human progress.

### 3. ITALY.

§ 678. The aggressiveness of the church authorities led to a statute, making it  
**1888-1889.** a penal offense to claim for the pope any sovereignty in Rome. But the difficulties have not been lessened, and the Roman question is still an irritating and a dangerous problem. The chief difficulties of Italy, however, are financial in their character. Cavour covered the infant kingdom with a colossal debt, and the triple alliance involves enormous outlay for military purposes. Crispi, a man of great

**Jan. 1891.** ability, succumbed to the opposition; who brought in the Marquis di Rudini with a policy of retrenchment, and possible re-action. Rudini proved unequal to the task, and Crispi has just been summoned to his former place. For a brief

**1893.** period, the relations of amity between Italy and the United States were interrupted by the murder of some Italians in New Orleans. The United States disavowed the outrage of the lynchers, and proffered compensation. Similar difficulties, though not quite so grave, have disturbed the relations of Italy and France. Popular outbreaks in both countries have led to diplomatic explanations. But no nation in Europe is likely to provoke a war for trivial causes. Europe is a camp, in which the nations sleep upon their arms.

### 4. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

§ 679. Trial by jury was introduced into Spain in 1888. In 1890 the Cortes passed the bill, granting the elective franchise to every Spaniard of full age, and in possession of civil rights. Sagasta was succeeded by Canovas del Castillo, and the latter was defeated in 1892, for his course in connection with the municipal scandal in Madrid.

Spain has been seriously troubled by anarchistic disturbances, especially in

**1892.** Barcelona, where labor riots have proved quite serious, and required

**1893.** the use of military force.

The only event in Portuguese history, of great moment, since 1888, has been her difficulty with England; this resulted in a treaty delimiting and restricting the re-

**1891.** spective territories and spheres of influence, for Portugal and Great Britain, on the continent of Africa.

### 5. AUSTRIA—HUNGARY.

§ 680. Vienna was the scene of ugly riots in 1889; these could be suppressed by the military only. A new army bill provoked a bitter struggle, and led finally to a reconstruction of the Tisza cabinet, and to the ultimate retirement of Tisza as prime minister. In 1891, Count Taaffe found himself so hampered by difficulties, that the Emperor dissolved the House of Deputies, and ordered new elections.

The death of the crown-prince, Rudolph, has left the empire in great uncertainty as to the future, and the death of the present monarch is likely to produce a desperate crisis. Hungary is still restless: the Slavs tend toward Russia: the Germans are dissatisfied, while the Jews are most bitterly hated.

Meanwhile, the empire is seeking to establish her currency upon a gold basis, and to improve her commerce by treaties with Italy and Germany. She clings to the triple alliance, and does so with reason, for she is most in danger, if Russia and France ever combine to crush the Germans and the Italians, and to divide the rest of Europe with each other.

## 6. RUSSIA.

§ 681. The great empire of the north is still in the throes of inward revolution. In 1888 the universities were closed by a decree of the Czar; hundreds of students were imprisoned, and scores of them exiled to Siberia. Count Tolstoi's efforts to alleviate the condition of the peasantry, received however the earnest support of

1889. Alexander III. The Baltic provinces and Finland have been Russified

1890. by harsh and cruel measures, and the Jews have been expelled in droves from Russia.

The Trans-Siberian railway was begun in 1891, but the loan of \$100,000,000 floated by the government for its construction, produced unusual excitement in financial circles, and led to serious political irritation. The German bankers refusing their support, Russia turned to France, where she proved successful.

Famine next afflicted the empire, but, owing to the rigid censorship of the press, and the merciless police regulations of the country, the exact condition of the people could not be learned.

Russia quarreled with Turkey about the Dardanelles, but did not go to war, as

1892. she did with Afghanistan, in a dispute about frontiers; although she

finally withdrew her forces from the invaded territory, and gave up the contention.

During recent years, Russia and France have seemed to have a mutual understanding, but the Czar, like his grandfather Nicholas, has no liking for republics.

1894. Hence the commercial treaty, recently negotiated with Germany, may indicate a return to the policy that held the emperors, Alexander II. and Kaiser Wilhelm, in bonds of cordial friendship, and soothed the ancient hatred of Slavonian and Teuton.

## 7. BELGIUM, THE NETHERLANDS, SWITZERLAND.

§ 682. Belgium has adjusted her boundary disputes with the Netherlands, but

1888. has been the scene of much domestic trouble. Anarchistic outbreaks led to an abortive prosecution that disgraced the government, and the laboring classes

1891. resorted to wide-spread strikes, in order to compel, from Parliament, the passage of a universal suffrage bill. Parliament refused to yield, but measures for the revision of the constitution were submitted by the ministry. The elections of 1892 resulted in a victory for the advocates of universal suffrage.

Anarchistic outrages continuing, some of the leaders have been at last convicted. But the little kingdom is shaken by frequent agitations, in which the clergy and the socialists are most conspicuous. The liberal ministry, suffering defeat in the first election held under the new constitution, resigned from office.



The king, becoming physically incompetent to reign, Queen Emma was appointed **Oct., 1890.** regent, a few days before the king's death.

The government of the anti-liberals proved unpopular, and the elections of 1891 drove them from power. The only important enactments of their term were the laws affecting the laboring classes, determining the hours of the labor-day, and regulating work in factories. The liberals, upon their return to office, passed new election laws. **1892.** and a new army bill.

The canal, connecting Amsterdam with the Rhine provinces of Germany, was opened in 1892, and marks the beginning of closer intercourse between the two peoples.

The Swiss Confederation has been sorely troubled by anarchists and political refugees. This led to the expulsion of certain Russian Nihilists in 1889.

Then again Wohlgemüth, suspected of being a spy, appealed to Germany after **May, 1890.** his banishment, and a correspondence ensued, which ended amicably in a treaty between the empire and the Confederation.

Ticino, one of the provinces near Italy, revolted in 1890; after intense excitement, order was restored. A council of conciliation was held at Berne, and amnesty was granted to all the insurgents. The introduction of the *referendum*, i. e. the submission of new statutes to a direct vote of the people, has done much to quiet party strife in Switzerland, and the people, after years of agitation, are living in comparative prosperity and peace.

#### 8. DENMARK, SWEDEN, NORWAY.

§ 683. The struggle in Denmark for genuine parliamentary government resulted, in 1892, in the defeat of the liberal party. This was due, partly to the alarming development of socialistic tendencies among the radicals, and to the great increase of socialistic strength at the polls, as revealed in the elections of 1890. Important poor laws have been enacted, and the revenue system has been carefully revised. But the constitutional crisis of 1888 may be regarded as overcome, at least for a brief period.

Sweden had adopted definitely the system of protection, having passed a corn law, and a general tariff law in 1888, and having overthrown a ministry too lukewarm in its prosecution of protective measures. In 1890, the Gothenburg license system was established in the kingdom, for the better regulation of the liquor traffic. But the great event of recent Swedish history has been the complete reorganization of the Swedish army. The King and his cabinet, alarmed at the rumors of war, and the mighty armaments of neighboring countries, convened the Diet in extraordinary session, and the measures of the minister of war were adopted in November, 1892.

The Norwegians are restless under a Swedish king. Björnson, the poet, and his followers seek the independence of Norway, and desire a republic. The radicals are in a majority in the Storting, and the Steen cabinet is in sympathy with them. A resolution passed the house, demanding co-equality of Norway with Sweden, and an independent consular service. This resolution King Oscar refused to sanction. Steen and his colleagues thereupon resigned, and the Storting adjourned. The King refused to give way, but was unable to form a new cabinet. The excitement in Christi-

ania and vicinity increased to an alarming extent. Finally the Storthing renewed its sessions, agreeing to postpone the consular question, if the Steen ministry were recalled. King Oscar consented, but the agitation for independence and for an extension of the elective franchise still continues.

## 9. GREECE, TURKEY, BULGARIA, ROUMANIA, SERVIA.

§ 684. King George, like King Oscar, has had no little trouble with his cabinet. Delyannis proved a failure. The financial condition of the kingdom grew rapidly worse under his management, and the King asked him to resign. Delyannis  
 1891-1892. refused, and the King dismissed him. The Boulé, or legislative council, sustained the minister, and denounced the conduct of the King. Popular uprisings followed. The King thereupon dissolved the Boulé, and in the elections that followed, Triconpis triumphed by a large majority, and at the King's summons, formed the present cabinet.

The chief event in recent Turkish history has been the insurrection of the Yemen tribes of Arabia. After a desperate and bloody struggle, they were finally defeated by the Turkish troops, under Ahmed Fehzy Pasha. Hamid Eddin, the false Iwaum, was killed, and along with him, twenty other chiefs, who acted under him in rebellion against the Turks.

King Ferdinand of Bulgaria has not yet been recognized by the Sultan, although his last words upon the subject held out hope to the Bulgarian minister. Russia continues to make trouble, but there is no pro-Russian party in Bulgaria, except that produced by panic or pay. Stambuloff was sustained by the elections of 1890, but all Bulgarian leaders are nationalists when in office. An attempt to murder the ministers led to an exciting trial, in which Russia was seriously compromised by documents that the Russian authorities denounce as spurious. Bulgaria, for a while, threatened Serbia with war, but the Sultan intervened successfully. France, too, seemed eager to provoke a conflict over the expulsion of a newspaper correspondent from the kingdom, but consented later to be appeased.

The farmers and peasants of Roumania have been relieved by a state loan system. The relations of the country with England had become more intimate, and a diplomatic difficulty with Greece has kept her statesmen busy and excited.

In Serbia, King Milan and his queen, Natalie, have been the objects of much intrigue and curious legislation. The King agreed to stay away until Aug. 1, 1894, when the prince attains his majority, but the Queen refused all propositions, and was finally expelled from the kingdom. Serbia is in sore financial straits, and a recent conflict with the metropolitan bishop revealed the weakness of her ecclesiastical system. The regency will soon expire, and fresh troubles probably begin.

## 10. ENGLAND.

§ 685. The county governments of England and Wales have been reconstituted since 1888, and a local government bill for Scotland was enacted in 1889.

Strikes and lockouts, expensive and exciting, have borne witness to the defective character of the existing industrial system of the world. The chief of these was the  
 1889. strike of the London dock laborers, in 1889; this resulted in favor of the strikers.

An anti-tithe war occurred in Wales, in 1890, where a league was formed, which  
**1890.** waged a bitter but unsuccessful opposition to the payment of tithes.

The failures in Australia and in South America produced a financial crisis in  
**1893.**

London, in which the great house of Baring was involved, and in 1893 the action of the Indian government, suspending silver coinage, still further aggravated the fever in commercial circles. England has been, however, free from difficulties with other nations, excepting with Portugal and the United States. The former related to boundary disputes in Africa; the latter to the fisheries of Newfoundland, and seal hunting in the Pacific Ocean.

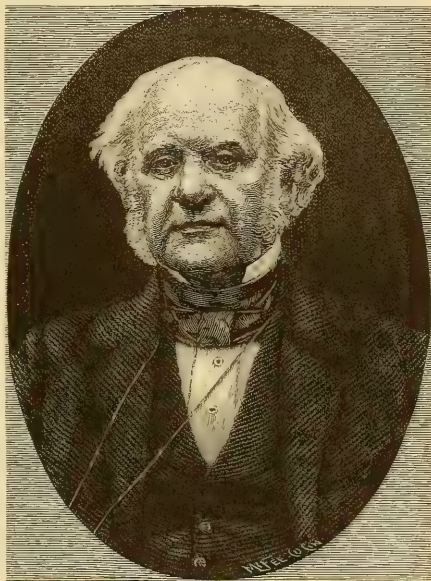
In 1893, a court of arbitration decided the controversy between the United States and Great Britain, but the two countries are still discussing the details of the court's award.

The main feature of English politics however has been, of course, the Irish question. In the summer of 1888 grave charges were made against Parnell, the leader of the Irish party, by the *London Times*. Parnell vindicated himself triumphantly before a committee of investigation, appointed by the House of Commons. But hardly had this trial ended, when the revelations of the divorce courts drove him, after a desperate struggle, into defeat and disgrace and death. The Irish parliamentary party divided into factions, Parnellites and anti-Parnellites, and the cause of Home Rule suffered severely.

Mr. Balfour's management of Irish affairs had been bold and partially successful; his land-purchase bill, passed in 1891, had meritorious features. Yet the riots of Tipperary, and the continued use of force to accomplish evictions, distressed the liberals of England, and led to their program of 1892, the chief feature of which, was local government for Ireland.

The Liberals obtained a majority of forty-two in the parliamentary elections of  
**1892.** 1892, and Mr. Gladstone returned to power. The Home Rule bill passed the House of Commons after a protracted and vehement struggle, but was thrown out by the House of Lords. Mr. Gladstone then turned to other measures, but his growing infirmities compelled his retirement, and Lord Roseberry, the minister of foreign affairs, succeeded him as prime minister. The liberals are still in office, but on the edge of defeat.

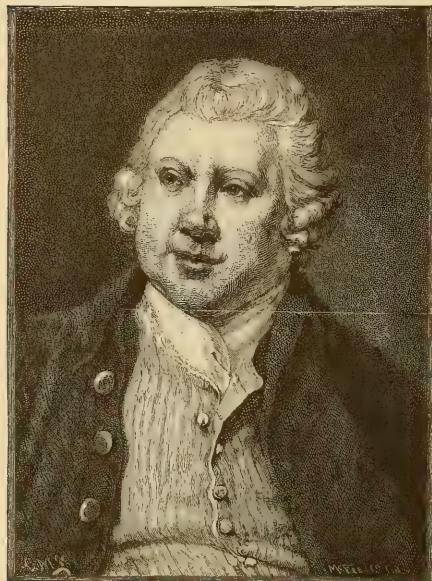
The retirement of Mr. Gladstone, like that of Prince Bismarck, rounds out an



GEORGE PEABODY.



epoch of modern history. The former has created a new England, the latter a new Germany Gladstone has been a man of peace, of domestic ideals, seeking the glory

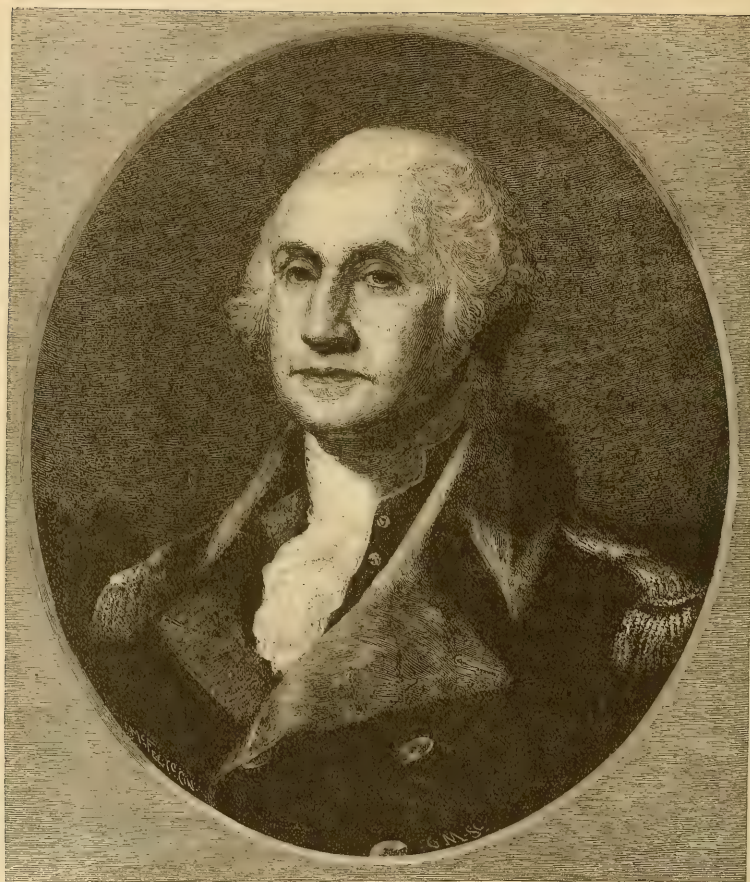


RICHARD ARKRIGHT.

of England, rather in the conciliation of conflicting elements at home, than in startling conquests abroad. Bismarck has been the man of blood and iron, seeking for Prussia the leadership of Germany, and for Germany the control of Europe. Gladstone cared rather for human progress than for national glory; Bismarck, on the other hand, believed all progress dependent upon the development of the state, and the security and glory of the throne. The English statesman stood for a conservative democracy, for government by the masses, made stable, not by bayonets, but by enlarged intelligence; the German chancellor for progressive monarchy, for government by princes, made stable by a mutual fidelity and loyalty, the king being the chief servant of the people, and the people the faithful dependants upon his energy and paternal care. Each was an idealist; each was also a man of practical sagacity, content with the

feasible and the possible. Along with Cavour and Lincoln they constitute the consummate flower of modern statesmanship.

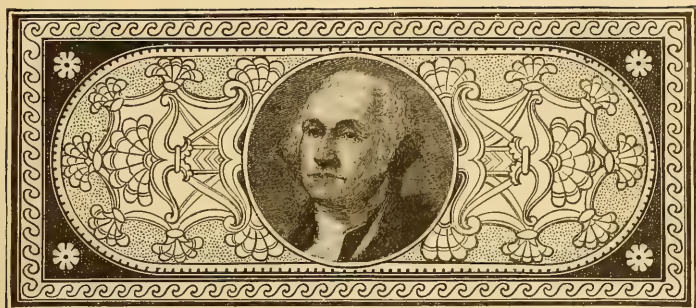




(pp. 786.)

GEORGE WASHINGTON.





## A. THE HISTORY OF NORTH AMERICA.

### I. THE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS.

#### 1. THE SPANISH SETTLEMENTS.

##### a. FLORIDA AND NEW SPAIN (MEXICO AND THE CALIFORNIAS.)

§ 666.



By a papal bull issued May 4th., 1493, all newly discovered countries were divided between Spain and Portugal; the line of demarcation, traced by Pope Alexander VI., was subsequently modified by treaty and moved to a point 370 leagues west of the Cape De Verde Islands. This gave Spain all of North and South America except Brazil. But the religious struggles of the sixteenth century made the papal authority, which had never been absolute in political affairs, of less than ordinary moment. Yet this being the period of Spanish greatness, she was able to establish her power in Florida and in New Spain, which latter included Mexico, New Mexico, Texas, and both Californias. She controlled of course the West Indies and ruled all of South America, by her governors, except Brazil; and when Portugal became subject to her neighbor kingdom, Brazil also was under Spanish authority from 1582 to 1640.

§ 667. FLORIDA.—Florida had been discovered by Ponce de Leon, who attempted.

1512. nine years afterward, the founding of a colony. But instead of discovering there, as he was told he would, the fountain of perpetual youth, he was mortally wounded by the hostile natives and died soon afterward in Cuba. Ponce de Leon was followed by Pampi lo de Narvaez who perished miserably in a futile search

1527. for gold. Ferdinand de Soto, who had been with Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, now obtained the royal permission to conquer Florida.

1539. He and his strange companions, priests and cavaliers, traversed great portions of

Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and in the third year of their wanderings reached the banks of "the great river." De Soto died from fever, and his body was sunk in the waters of the mighty stream down which his starving comrades floated to the Gulf of Mexico. Notwithstanding these and other misadventures, Spain looked with bitter jealousy upon every attempt of her great rival France to gain a foothold in this vast domain; for by Florida she meant all the country between the Atlantic and New Mex-

**1524.** ico and from the gulf to the Polar

**1497.** Sea. France claimed it through the discovery of Verrazzani; England claimed it through

**1565.** the discovery of the Cabots; and now

**1568.** France attempted to colonize it with a settlements of Huguenots, who built Fort Caroline (near St. Augustine). These were massacred by Menendez in 1565, a massacre swiftly and thoroughly avenged by Dominique de Gourgues in 1568. Menendez founded St. Augustine, and eighteen years later Francis Drake, then at the height of his strange career discovered and attacked the Spaniards at St. Augustine and burned their town. From this time forward conflicts took place between the Spaniards of Florida and the English settlers of the South until Florida was ceded to Great Britain in 1763. In the twenty years of English occupation twenty thousand immigrants arrived who nearly all withdrew when Florida was ceded back to Spain in 1783. In 1821 the Spanish king ratified reluctantly the treaty by which it became the territory of the United States of America.



PONCE DE LEON.

*b. Mexico and New Spain.*

§ 668. Cortez withdrew from Mexico in 1540, and New Spain continued under  
**1550.** the sway of her first viceroy Antonio de Mendoza until 1550. He



FERDINAND DE SOTO.

baptized the natives and wore away their strength by hardships in the mines. Rapacious laws and cruel tyranny depopulated whole towns. Las Casas, the one true friend of the people, appealed in their behalf so urgently that new laws were established by imperial decree, to mitigate the horrors of the Viceroyal dominion, and Valasco, the successor of Mendoza, in spite of opposition, executed these decrees with fidelity and some success. He also witnessed the founding of a University at

**1568.** the capital of Mexico. In 1568 the English

began to harrass the Spaniards along the coast, and the Spaniards began the torture of the natives with the Inquisition, which was regularly established in 1571. Pirates

on the sea, floods on the land, robbers on the highway, and natives to be christianized kept the Viceroys busy. A nest of English buccaneers was established at Jamaica, and a gang of French free-booters had their rendezvous at

*Coronado.* St. Domingo. Vera Cruz was raided by them in 1681. Meanwhile

**1540.** the monks and Jesuits had pushed their missions forward into New

Mexico, Arizona, and the regions of the upper Pacific coast. Tucson in Arizona is said to be, after St. Augustine, the oldest European settlement in North America. In

**1567.** 1767 the Jesuits were expelled, but their labors were renewed by the Franciscans and Dominicans, who founded mission stations in upper California.

**1769.** San Francisco Bay was discovered in 1769, and in 1806 the Spaniards, pushing northward, encountered the Russians from Alaska pushing toward the South.

During all this period Spain ruled the people exclusively in the interest of the



BURIAL OF DE SOTO.

Spanish crown. Only the Spaniard born in Europe could bear authority in church or state, and no attention was paid to the interests of the Creoles or of the natives. Trade was so restricted, that the products of the colonies could be sold to Spaniards only, and the colonists were allowed to deal in none but Spanish commodities. Tobacco was a royal monopoly; the products of Spain, such as wine and oil, the colonists were forbidden to raise; they might not plant sugar-corn, or cultivate the silk-worm, or open up their iron mines. All commodities that came from Spain were subject to oppressive import duties. The governor of the province, a born Spaniard, had the privilege of "Repartimientos," that is, he sent to every village a quantity of commodities with fixed prices, which the inhabitants were required to buy.

No schools were established; the agents of the Inquisition were extremely vigilant; and with comparatively few troops the Spanish rulers were able to suppress every at-



tempt at insurrection. Nevertheless the population of Mexico increased greatly, and many European arts and modes of life were introduced.

## 2. NEW FRANCE.

### a. *The French in North America.*

§ 669. The Normans, the Bretons, and the Basques discovered quite early the cod-fish banks of Newfoundland. The Basques had been there before the voyage of Cabot in 1497, and in 1517 fifty Castilian, French, and Portuguese vessels were fishing there at the same time. From that day to this, these fisheries have been an object of contention: at first, between French, English, Spanish, and Portuguese and in later times, between English, French, and American.

Francis I. of France, notwithstanding the Papal bull, sought a share of the treasures of the New World, and sent out Verrazzano with four ships, which sailed from Dieppe in the winter of 1523. This Florentine navigator reached the shores of what



OLD SPANISH GATE AT ST. AUGUSTINE, FLA.

is now North Carolina, and coasted the sea-board from the 34th. to the 50th. degree of

1524. north latitude. Returning to Dieppe on the 8th of July, 1524, he wrote to the French king the earliest known description of the Atlantic shores of North America. The subsequent fortunes of Verrazzano are unknown, but the rumor of his discoveries led to the expedition of Jacques Cartier, who sailed from St. Malo,

1534. April 20th, 1534. Cartier passed through the straits of Belle Isle and sailed up the St. Lawrence to Anti Costi. Returning to St. Malo, he received a fresh commission; and with three vessels, the largest of them not above 120 tons, he steered again for the St. Lawrence which was called by him, the great river of Hochelaga. At Stadaconé the Indians told him of their great metropolis Hochelaga, after which they said the river was called. Stadaconé and Hochelaga were the Indian names of the now famous sites, Quebec and Montreal. Jean Francois de la Roque, Sieur de Roberval was, upon Cartier's return, made Viceroy of New France, as the newly discovered country was called. Cartier as captain-general of a new expedition, preceded him to his vast dominions; but the colony of Roberval perished from dissensions and

from famine, and Roberval himself disappeared from history almost without a trace. In 1578, there were 150 French fishing vessels at Newfoundland, but the thrifty sailors and merchants of St. Malo had by this time discovered new treasures in the fur-trade, and held it firmly until La Roche, with his band of convicts, attempted a colony which proved ruinous to all concerned. But in the early days of the reign of Henry IV., Aymer de Chastes "resolved to proceed to New France, in person, and dedicate the rest of his days to the service of God and his king." Champlain had just returned from the West Indies, and De Chastes under whom he had served in the Royal navy, offered him a post in the new company. Champlain sought eagerly the king's consent,

**1603.** and in 1603 embarked with Pont Gravé, a Breton merchant, for the Western world. The little vessels in which they sailed were of twelve and fifteen tons respectively. But they outrode the rough Atlantic seas and reached Hochelaga, to find hardly a trace of the savage population that thronged about Cartier and his companions sixty-eight years before. When De Chastes died, the Sieur de Monts petitioned the king for leave to colonize La Cadie (Acadia). The region thus designated extended from the fortieth to the forty-sixth degree of north latitude. In spite of the opposition of the sagacious Sully, King Henry appointed De Monts lieutenant-general, with Vice-regal powers, and gave him the monopoly of the fur-trade. He sailed from Havre,

**1604.** April 7th, 1604, with a motley collection of vagabonds and volunteers; the latter consisting of noblemen, catholic priests and Huguenot ministers. Pont-Gravé was to follow a few days after. De Monts reached and explored the Bay of Fundy, and chose the Island of St. Croix as the site of his colony. Scurvy soon broke out among his people and, weary of their ill-fated island, they embarked upon a fruitless search for a better habitation. Finally they removed to Port Royal, and De Monts returned to France. For the merchants and fisherman of Brittan and Normandy had attacked his monopoly and, in spite of all his efforts, his patent was annulled. But Port Royal had been given by him to Pontreincourt, who was resolved upon a New France, and this grant was confirmed by the king. Accordingly in 1610,

**1610.** Pontreincourt sailed from Dieppe, followed by the Jesuits, whom he vainly tried to elude. In 1613, this colony at Port Royal was attacked by Samuel Argall, an English sea-captain, who turned part of it adrift in an open boat and carried the rest of it in captivity to Virginia. This was the beginning of the struggle between France and England for the possession of North America.



SAMUEL CHAMPLAIN.

Champlain, who had abandoned Port Royal when the patent of De Monts was revoked, returned to Canada in 1608 once more, at the instance of his former chief, whose fur monopoly had been revived for one year. He founded a city at Quebec (the Nar-

**1608.** rows), ascended the Richelieu river, discovered the Lake which bears

**1609.** his name, fought the Iroquois Indians, incurring thereby for himself and his countrymen their unquenchable hatred, discovered Lake Huron, and won for himself and for France the undying attachment of the Huron Indians, discovered Lake

**1615.** Ontario also, and, crossing the forests of New York to Lake Oneida, penetrated to the heart of the Iroquois settlements. On his way back to Quebec, he umpired a desperate quarrel between the Huron and Algonquin tribes that threatened the destruction of the commerce of New France. Arrived at Quebec, he found few signs of growth, and much discord and disorder. The Huguenots outside the colony, chiefly merchants from Rochelle, were carrying on defiantly an illicit traffic along the St. Lawrence; the Huguenots within, although the exercise of their religion was prohibited by royal edict, were singing lustily their heretical psalms. Greed and bigotry made Catholic and Huguenot hateful to each other, yet both united in a hearty hatred of Champlain. But the latter was no common adventurer; his purposes were high, his energy and fortitude exceeding great; every year he went to France in the interest of the colony, but his efforts both at Quebec and at Paris were altogether fruitless. In 1627 the mighty Richelieu became supreme in France. He, learning of the mismanagement in America, annulled all privileges, and created the Company of New France, consisting of a hundred associates, with himself as president. The company bound itself to convey to the colony before the year 1643, at least four thousand persons of both sexes, who were to be lodged and fed for three years at the companies' expense, and subsequently to be allotted lands for their support. These settlers were to be French men and Catholics. The Huguenots were excluded forever. But the Huguenots of France were a sore plague to the colony which they were forbidden to enter. The revolt of Rochelle, their strong city, brought the English King Charles into conflict with Richelieu and his royal master. Quebec was approached by an English fleet in command of David Kirk, a Huguenot of Dieppe, who summoned it to surrender. Champlain refused, although the wretched colonists were almost dead from famine. Kirk sailed away, but his brother Louis returned and the starving remnant capitulated. But New France was soon restored by the English and Emery de Caen was sent to reclaim Québec. He landed in 1632 and Champlain, re-commissioned by Richelieu, followed in 1633. The Recollet priests were now virtually excluded, and

**1633.** the Jesuits who took their places, soon converted Quebec and in fact all New France, into a mission;—a mission to explore the vast interior country, and a mission to conquer the savage tribes for the cross of Christ and the crown of France.

**1635.** Champlain died on Christmas day, 1635. He is the noblest figure of this early time: his splendid courage was tempered by a chastity that excited the wonder of the Huron chiefs; though credulous he was simply and nobly truthful; patient always, yet sagacious and daring to the last. For just before he died, he petitioned Richelieu for men and means to exterminate the Iroquois.

Port Royal was founded in 1605, but the contests of ambitious leaders and the incessant invasions of the English, so retarded the French settlements in Acadia, that

**1654.** in 1686 the whole population, including thirty soldiers, was only 915.



**1638.** Cromwell had it subjugated in 1654, but it was ceded back to France  
**1690.** in 1668. It was attacked again by Sir William Phipps, who sailed  
 from Boston in 1690; and when Phipps in 1692 became the first Royal governor of  
**1692.** Massachusetts, Acadia was a part of the domain included in the new  
 charter. But in 1697 it was once more ceded back to France.

*b. French Discoveries Along the Great Lakes.*

§ 690. Etienne (Stephen) Brulé of Champigny was the first white man to pene-  
**1618.** trate the region beyond Lake Huron, which he did in 1618. Jean Nicol-  
**1634.** let in 1634 passed through the straits of Mackinaw, and discovered



MARQUETTE AND JOLIET DISCOVERING THE MISSISSIPPI.

Lake Michigan. But the death of Champlain in 1635, and the ravages of the terrible  
 Iroquois, led to the abandonment of the French trading ports on Lake Huron and  
 Lake Michigan, and there were no further discoveries until after the peace of 1654.  
 In 1659 Groselliers and Radisson learned from the Hurons of a river as large as the  
 St. Lawrence, lying further to the westward, (and, if we may believe Perrot), Father  
 Menard, and his faithful servant Jean Guérin, saw the Mississippi twelve years before  
 the great river was seen by Joliet and his companions. Joliet reached the straits of  
 Mackinaw in 1672; there he found Marquette. These two, with five companions, pro-  
 ceeded in birch canoes to the valley of the Fox River and reached the Wisconsin by  
 a short portage. Following its course they entered the Mississippi on the 17th of

**1673.** June, 1673; they descended to the mouth of the Arkansas and then

returned up stream to the Illinois. On the west bank of one of its tributaries Joliet discovered a curious mound of clay, sand, and gravel which he called Mont Joliet.\*

c. *Discovery of the Mississippi and Settlement of Louisiana.*

§ 691. In 1672 Count Frontenac arrived at Quebec, governor and lieutenant-general for the king of all New France. Louis XIV. and his great minister, Colbert, had spent great sums in building up the empire beyond the sea. New settlers were shipped annually to the St. Lawrence, until the drain upon France threatened disaster to the army; wives were supplied by royal bounty; farms and new houses were given freely to the immigrants. So that when Frontenac assumed control, it was possible

1672. for him to form the Three Estates of Canada, which he convoked Oct. 23, 1672. He then set himself to establish a municipal government, with town meetings every six months. These were at once abolished by the angry King, and the Jesuits refused at the same time to co-operate with him in his plans to civilize the Indians. It was in the midst of these and other difficulties, that Frontenac became acquainted with La Salle. Each was eager for fortune, fame, and power, and the two

1677. joined hands. In 1677 La Salle appeared at the court of the Grand Monarch, who authorized him to build and own as many forts as he saw fit, provided it was done within five years. He was to discover the country, and find a way to Mexico. But the King gave him no money: He therefore found it where he could, and in Sept., 1678, he with Tonty, an Italian officer, La Motte, a French nobleman, and thirty men arrived at Quebec. Father Hennepin, the adventurous friar and historian of the expedition, came down from Fort Frontenac to meet him. In 1679 La Salle was on the upper lakes, in 1680 on the Illinois, whence he sent Accan to explore the Mississippi, whom Father Hennepin, a Franciscan Monk, volunteered to accompany.

1680-1681. These penetrated to the country of the Sioux and discovered the Falls of St. Anthony, as they were called by the mendacious Franciscan. La Salle reached Lake Huron in October, 1681. His experiences had been of the most trying character,

1681. but his spirit was undaunted. About Christmas time he crossed from Fort Miami on Lake Michigan to the Chicago river. The streams were frozen. Tonty and d'Autry had gone before him. They crossed from the Chicago to the Illinois, and dragging their canoes on sledges, they reached at last open water below Lake Peoria. Trusting to their canoes, they floated down the quiet river until on the 6th of February; then drifted into the floating ice that was sweeping down the mighty Mississippi. For a week they could get no further. Resuming their course, they came to the muddy torrent of the Missouri. They passed the Ohio and the Arkansas, and on the 6th of April they arrived at the three great channels. La Salle kept to the west, Tonty took the middle passage, and d'Autry drifted to the east. Tonty was the first to behold the mighty bosom of the Gulf. All three united on a spot just above the mouth of the river, where they erected a column inscribed "*Louis le Grand, Roy de France et*

*April 9, 1682. de Navarre, règne; le Neuvieme Avril, 1682.*" The new country was called by La Salle, Louisiana. In the the map of Franquelin made in 1684, it stretches from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains and from the Rio Grande to the head waters of the Missouri.

\* This is forty miles southwest of Chicago, near the city of Joliet, and is the only station marked on Joliet's map that still retains the name he gave it.

§ 692. "Louisiana," wrote Charlevoix, "is the name which M. de LaSalle gave to  
 1682. that portion of the country watered by the Mississippi, lying below the river Illinois." When the discoverer returned to Paris, Louis XIV. dreamed splendid dreams of conquests and colonization, of gold and silver and precious products. He gave La Salle a commission to found a colony, and fitted him out with vessels and other requisites. But the expedition ended disastrously. The voyagers reached the Gulf of Mexico, but were compelled to land on the coast of Texas. La Salle perished mysteriously, and his associates were massacred by the Indians.

Pierre le Moyne d'Iberville, a native of Canada, accustomed to adventure and danger from boyhood, was the first to renew the interest of the French court in the settlement of the "Great River." He was provided with a small fleet, and succeeded in finding the entrance to the Mississippi, from the Gulf of Mexico. He chose the  
 1698. sand banks of Biloxi Bay for his emigrants, about two hundred in all,

a choice that proved fatal to their fortunes. No green thing could live on the fine white sand. Supplies had to be brought from France. After the death of Louis XIV., the regent grew tired of the sickly and expensive colony, and sold it, along  
 1712. with exclusive privileges of trade, to Sieur Antony Crozat. This wealthy speculator hoped to make a fortune from his grant, and for a while worked wonders; but was finally compelled to assign his rights to the

1712. "Company of the West," the famous "Mississippi Bubble," of the canny Scotchman, John Law. The bubble burst; Law became a fugitive, and almost a pauper.

1718. But during its iridescent glory, the city of New Orleans was founded, and Louisiana became the scene of active emigration. In 1721 the population had reached five thousand

four hundred and twenty, of whom six hundred were negroes. In 1731, when the colony reverted to the king, the white population numbered five thousand, and the negroes two thousand. In 1762, the French King presented the colony to his dear cousin, the King of Spain, although the gift was made in secret. But it was just in time to prevent its acquisition by the English, when Quebec was captured, and New France passed forever into other hands.



HENRY HUDSON.

### 3. THE DUTCH SETTLEMENTS ON THE HUDSON AND THE DELAWARE.

§ 693. The Dutch, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, had established a great republic. Their heroic struggle with Spain led them to strike their adversary everywhere, and naturally they bethought them of the lands across the sea. William Usselinx, a merchant of Antwerp, proposed a West India Company, as early as 1592, and ships of the Greenland Company are said to have entered the Hudson and the Delaware rivers in 1598. The scheme of Usselinx was revived in 1606, but political considerations led to its rejection by Oldenbarnvelt, who was then the ruling mind of Holland, and who eagerly desired peace. In 1608 Henry Hudson, an English sailor, was employed by the Dutch East India Company to search for a north-east passage to  
 1608. the East Indies. He sailed from the Texel in the yacht "Half-moon" in April, 1609. But encountering much ice and fog, he changed his plan into a search



for a north-west passage, at about the fortieth degree of latitude. He landed successively at Newfoundland, Penobscot Bay, and Cape Cod. In August he entered the Delaware Bay, and on September 4, sailed into the "Great mouth of the great river" of New Netherland.

The West India project of Usselinx was now organized into a reality. And the



HENRY HUDSON IN NORTH RIVER.

Company sent Captain Mey to the South River (Delaware), and Tienpont to the North (Hudson) as directors.

Mey erected Fort Nassau, four miles south-east of what is now Philadelphia, and

**1626.** Tienpont built Fort Orange, where Albany now stands. In 1626 Peter Minuit, the successor of Tienpont, bought Manhattan island from the Indians, for which he gave them about twenty-four dollars.

Under the charter of 1621, a council was organized, but in 1629 the States-General

**Minuit,** sanctioned a **1626-1633.** new charter of "freedoms and exemptions."

The latter however were for the directors of the Company, and not for the colonists. Vast purchases of land were now made from the Indians, and as rapidly as possible settlers were conveyed to the plantations. The owners of these tracts, the Cortlandts, Livingstons, Schuylers, Van Rennsalaers, were called "patroons," and their holdings were known as manors.

On the South (Delaware) River, the settlements were destroyed by the Indians, but **Van Twiller,** revived again under the administration of Wouter Van Twiller, who, **1633-1637.** by his efforts at expansion, brought the colony on the North (Hudson) River into conflict with the English. Van Twiller so abused his position, that he was displaced by William Kieft, in 1637. His conduct however led to the investigation of the colony by their High Mightinesses, and to a change in its administration. The monopoly of the company was abolished, and the cultiva-

tion of the soil opened up to every immigrant. Throngs now flocked to New Netherland. From Europe came peasant farmers and wealthy educated families, looking for new homes and larger fortunes; from New England the disfranchised victims of ecclesiastical tyranny; from Virginia and the South, the indentured servants whose period of bondage had expired. In 1643 eighteen different nationalities were already represented in New Amsterdam (New York).

But Kieft's administration was one of tyranny and folly. He provoked an Indian war; he quarreled with the burghers of New Amsterdam; he exposed the colony to a dangerous and ruinous conflict with the people of New Haven.

Kieft was succeeded by Peter Stuyvesant, a man of experience and energetic



DUTCH TRADERS AT MANHATTAN.

*Stuyvesant,* courage. The colony was revolutionized and liberalized, the rights of the settlers to a share in the government freely acknowledged, the carrying trade thrown open, and morality restored.

Stuyvesant remained for seventeen years, and had his means been ample enough, his administration might have been a great success. But hostile Indians drained his resources, and reduced his army to one hundred and fifty soldiers, scattered from Albany to Philadelphia in four little garrisons. He had moreover espoused the cause of Kieft, and thereby incurred the hostility of the settlers. Then came an order to admit only the Dutch to public employment. The people clamored for a general assembly of the towns, to which Stuyvesant consented reluctantly and too late. So

**1664.** when the English came, as they did in 1664, the colonists insisted upon the surrender, and New Amsterdam became New York. It was retaken by the Dutch **Colve,** in 1673, but after a foolish administration by Anthony Colve, as governor, it was given back to England, and reorganized as an English province in 1674, although a provincial assembly, with limited popular representatives, was not established until 1684.



PETER STUYVESANT.

#### 4. THE SWEDISH SETTLEMENTS ON THE DELAWARE.

§ 694. The Swedish settlements in America are only an episode in the occupation of the Dutch. They were projected by Willem Usselinx, the chief founder of the Dutch West India Company, who induced Gustavus Adolphus to institute the Australian Company, with special privileges of trade with America. The death of the great king, and the thirty years' war postponed the settling of New Sweden, but in 1638, Peter Minuit, as commander of a Swedish expedition, sailed up the Delaware River, and purchased land from the Indians living near the river Schuylkill. A fort was built and called in honor of the



1638. Swedish queen, Fort Christina. "The country is troublesome to defend," wrote Campanius Holm, "both on account of the savages and the Christians, who inflict upon us every kind of harm."

By the Christians he meant the English, and especially the Dutch. The latter claimed the regions of the Delaware, and Peter Stuyvesant determined to make good the claim. He sent "a ship well manned and equipped with cannon," to close the river to the Swedes; and when this failed he came from New Amsterdam himself. He did not, however, subjugate New Sweden, until 1655, when he besieged Fort

1655. Christina, and compelled the governor to surrender. The Swedish government made futile efforts to recover the colony, from both the Dutch and the English. But no trace of connection with the mother country endured, except the Gloria Dei church, in Philadelphia, which had a Swedish pastor until 1831.

## 5. THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS ON THE ATLANTIC COAST.



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

§ 695. The English settlements in North America were destined to absorb all others; planted in the beginning, along a comparatively narrow strip of the Atlantic sea-coast, they have come to include the whole continent, from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico, and from the stormy waters of the Atlantic to the immense expanse of the Pacific Ocean.

### a. *The Southern Colonies.*

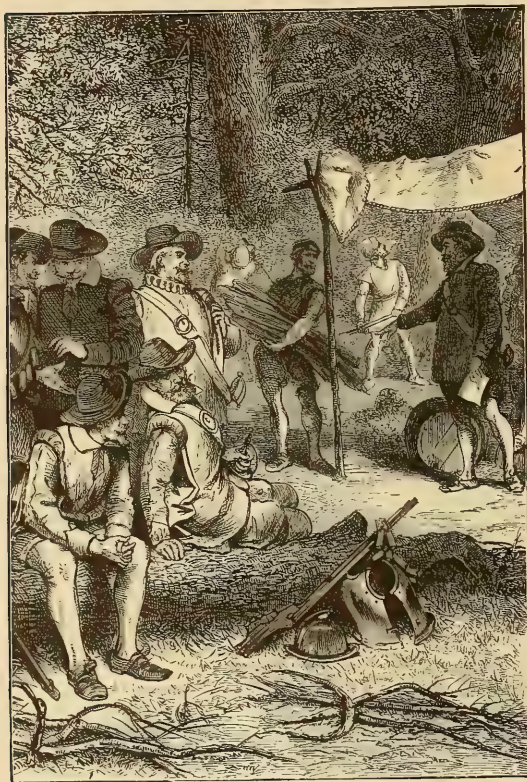
§ 696.—*The Early English Voyages.*—"10£ to hym that found the new isle." Thus reads an entry in the expense account of Henry VII., of England. Sebastian Cabot was meant by "hym," and the "new isle" was St. John, discovered by "hym" in 1497.

But not until Hore's ill-fated expedition, in 1536, did voyages to America excite the adventurous spirit of the English gentry. A few years later, Drake and Frobisher prowled along the American coasts. In 1565 Sir Humphrey

1565. Gilbert projected a colony in America, in which "to settle such needy people of our own as now trouble the commonwealth, and through want at home, are enforced to commit outrageous offenses, whereby they are daily consumed by the gallows." He made two voyages, both of which were unfortunate. In the latter he perished by shipwreck, saying as he parted from his friends, "We are as near heaven by

sea as by land." Walter Raleigh, his half-brother, obtained a patent in 1584. He then  
 1584. sent out Barlow and Armidas to select a site for his colony. They soon returned with glowing accounts of a country, which Queen Elizabeth is said to have named VIRGINIA. Raleigh was knighted by his royal mistress, and settlers were sent out to Roanoke island. But this plantation perished from Indian hostility and lack of supplies. A second colony failed as wretchedly, and Raleigh, after fifteen years of failure, and a loss of £40,000, abandoned hope.

§ 697. *The Settlement of Virginia.*—No plantations were attempted again, until

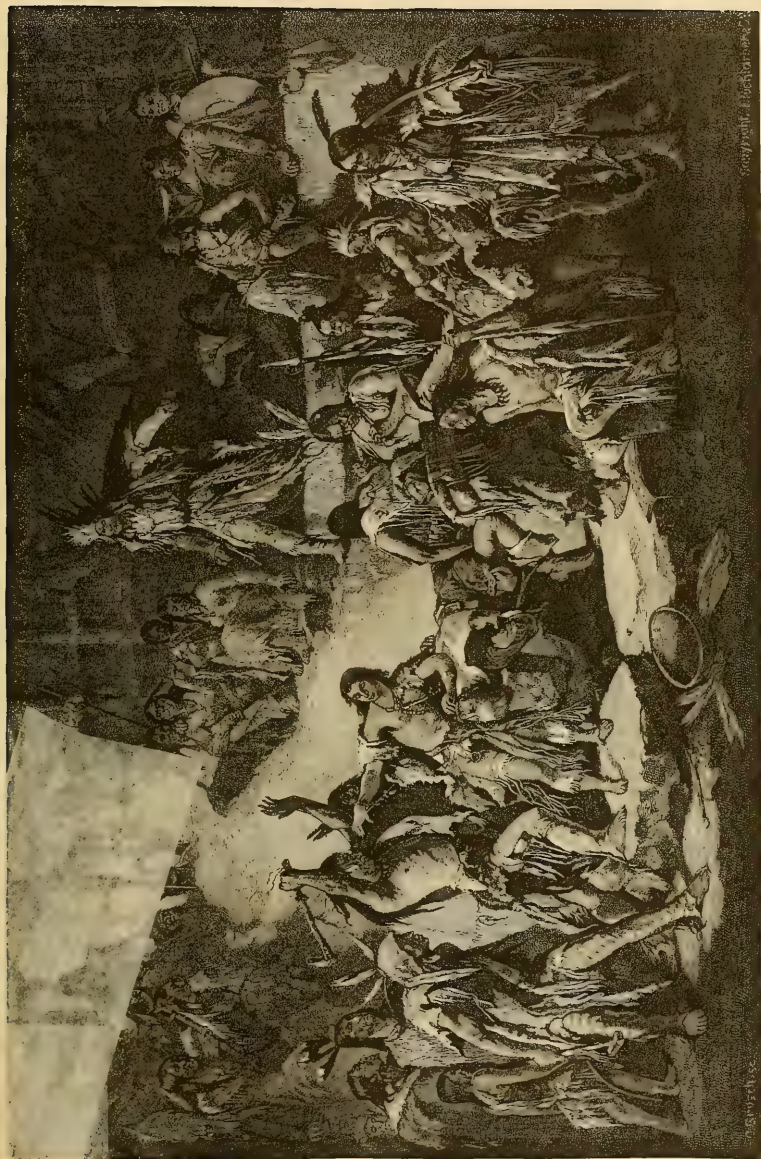


SETTLERS AT JAMESTOWN.

1606, when certain London merchants and West-country gentlemen formed the Virginia Company, "to establish plantations in America." On New Year's  
 1607. day, 1607, Captain Christopher Newport, with two ships and a pinnace, carrying one hundred and forty-three emigrants, sailed for Virginia, touching at the West Indies. On May 13, 1607, they "selected for their colony, a peninsula, which they named Jamestown. Among the emigrants was Captain John Smith, the son of a Lincolnshire gentleman, who had learned war in the Netherlands, been thrown into the Mediterranean by French pilgrims, fought with a Turkish champion in Hungary, been sold into slavery and, escaping from bondage, had traveled through every civilized country of Europe. This remarkable man, to whose writings we owe our knowledge of early Virginia, was put in

irons during the voyage, but released at its termination. He then went among the Indians, who held him captive for a while, and then sent him back to Jamestown. There he was in more danger than he had been from the Indians, and their chief, Powhatan, whose daughter Pocahontas, according to the well known but contested





POCAHONTAS SAVING THE LIFE OF CAPTAIN SMITH.

(pp. 80L.)



story, saved him from imminent destruction. But he overcame the hatred of his enemies, became soon the actual, and finally the titular head of the colony.

§ 698. In 1609 Lord Delaware was appointed governor, "of the colonies to be planted in Virginia." Five hundred emigrants were also sent out by the company. "They were," wrote Smith, "unruly gallants packed thither by their friends to escape ill destinies." Smith unfortunately was injured seriously by the explosion of a powder-bag, and obliged to leave the colony, to which he never returned; and it was about to disband, when Lord Delaware arrived. But he too was soon driven home by ill-health. Dale succeeded him and ruled with a high hand, but under his energetic management, the colony prospered.



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

*Samuel Argall.* Argall who was little better than a pirate, ruled in similar fashion.

Yeardley succeeded Argall, and his coming is an epoch in American history; for under the instructions of the re-organized Virginia Company,

the new governor summoned an ASSEMBLY OF BURGESSES from the various hundreds and plantations. This was the first representative legislative body in America. The members of it were elected by the free-men of the settlements, each county returning two. The functions of the Assembly were:

1. To give legal form to the instructions of the Company.
2. To supplement them by laws of their own.

3. To petition the Company upon certain points.

In England, Sandys, the real manager of the Virginia company, and the great missionary, Patrick Copeland, had revived interest in the American settlement, and in the conversion of the Indians. The latter, however, had no desire for religion, and the settlers had no missionary zeal. During the life-time of Powhatan, however, the natives remained friendly to the settlers; but after his death, under his brother

Opechancanough, they nearly exterminated the plantation. In 1624 the patent of the Virginia company was revoked, and the colony reverted to the King not without a protest from the colonists.

§ 699. *Virginia Under Royal Rule.*—King Charles I. proclaimed a new charter for Virginia, May 13, 1625. This provided for two companies, one resident in England, the other in Virginia. Public servants were made dependent on the crown. The House of Burgesses was not even mentioned by the King, that "found his Cromwell." The governors, however, found it wise not to suppress the

sembly, and in 1639, they were bold enough to send the King a remonstrance against the restoration of the Virginia company. They had already offended Charles, by their energy and courage, in a quarrel with Lord Baltimore, but this action of 1639 restored <sup>1639.</sup> them to the royal favor. The colony had now become quite prosperous, numbering 10,000 souls. These consisted of freemen, indented slaves, and negro slaves, the second class, the bondsmen for a term of years, being more numerous than the Africans.

"20 Negars came in a Dutch man-of-war about the last of August, 1619." But at first the increase of them was slow, and their value small. But they and their value increased with the discovery that cotton, rice, tobacco and sugar flourished, especially with slave labor. The eleven plantations, of which the colony consisted,



INDIAN ATTACK.

lay between the York and the James rivers, except one on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake. These were prosperous enough to export food to New England, and to excite the cupidity of hungry office-seekers in the "Old Home."

§ 700. Sir Wm. Berkeley was appointed governor in 1641. His administration *Sir Wm. Berkeley.* was noted for changes in the constitution, and a second Indian <sup>1641-1677.</sup> massacre. The latter led to energetic action by the assembly, and the conquest of a peace that lasted thirty years. The former, by exempting councillors from taxation, separated the financial interests of the large planters from those of the general community, and thus created an aristocratic and a popular party. Berkeley, though by no means a fool, thanked God that there were in Virginia, "no free schools nor printing," and hoped "that there would be none there for a hundred years." Unfor-

tunately his hope was too well grounded. During the protectorate of Cromwell, Berkeley retired. At first Virginia showed symptoms of opposition to the Commonwealth, but soon yielded to the men that killed the king. The House of Burgesses now increased their power, but about the same time the aristocratic element was recruited by the arrival of cavaliers, from England, the Lees, the Washingtons, and others. Nevertheless, when the Governor came into collision with the Assembly in 1658, the Burgesses asserted stoutly, and even strengthened their authority. This House was indeed the worthy ancestor of the House that passed the Stamp Act resolutions. Four times already it had claimed for itself *the exclusive right of imposing*

**1658.** *taxes in the colony*, and now in 1658, it denied the right of the Governor to dissolve its sessions. It thus prepared the way for Patrick Henry and George Washington, for Thomas Jefferson and Richard Henry Lee.

§ 701. *Bacon's Rebellion*.—Berkeley and Harvey seconded the wishes of Charles I. to establish a regular army in Virginia. But the colonists were a ready-made militia. Charles lost his head, and the popular party in Virginia gained in consequence. But the restoration sent Berkeley back as the king's governor. The Assembly acquiesced without a murmur.

But the "navigation act" of the protectorate was not repealed. Colonial produce must be exported in English bottoms; no one might establish himself in the colonies as a merchant; certain enumerated staples might be exported, but only to England or to English dependencies; the colonists were not allowed to receive any goods in foreign vessels. And to make things worse, the statute of 1672 provided that goods sent from one colony to the other must pay the same duties as if sold in England. This drove Virginia to depend wholly upon tobacco. And every cargo of this product must run the risk of seizure by a Dutch privateer. Discontent was therefore rife among the Virginians. And when the long Assembly, whose members were enjoy-

**1676.** ing large stipends, continued sitting until 1676, this discontent broke into open murmurs. Moreover official fees were exorbitant, and public office was already private spoil. At this juncture, Charles II. rewarded Culpepper and Arlington with large grants of Virginia territory. These grants made all land tenures insecure. The colonists were alarmed and angry, but an arrangement with the grantees, by which the rights of settlers could be safe-guarded, was nearly completed, when an outbreak of popular rage shook the whole community. This began in a quarrel with the Indians, and developed into a war that involved Maryland as well as Virginia. Berkeley behaved badly, and the angry colonists demanded a commission for Nathaniel Bacon. Berkeley refused their demand. The Indians, soon after this, murdered Bacon's favorite servant. Gathering about a hundred planters, Bacon invaded the Indian country, but half of his men deserted him. He was short of supplies, and in his exasperation, he burned a village of friendly Indians, murdering the inhabitants.

§ 702. Berkeley proclaimed him a rebel, dissolving the long Assembly, and issuing writs of election for a new House. Bacon was elected for his own county, but held a prisoner by the Governor. He was soon pardoned, however, and restored to his seat in the Council. The Assembly then attacked abuses. The right to vote was restored to every free man, and the laying of all taxes transferred to the Assembly. One thousand men were raised, "for carrying on a war against the barbarous Indians," and Bacon was nominated to the command. Suddenly however Bacon disappeared. He



had returned home (dreading perhaps some destructive scheme of Berkeley,) and in four days he was in full march upon Jamestown, with four hundred men. With these living arguments he persuaded Berkeley to give him a commission, and the Assembly to pass an act of indemnity, condoning his previous offences. Berkeley left for Gloucester; Bacon marched against the Indians. Berkeley again proclaimed Bacon a rebel; Bacon replied with a manifesto, reciting the grievances of the colonists, and summoning a convention of freemen. The convention met; the attendance was large; an oath to support the "rebel" was taken by the freemen present. But Berkeley knew the power of promises. The planters of Accomac should have the confiscated estates of the rebels, and be exempt from all taxes except church dues, if they would only stand by him. And then the servants, and the slaves of the rebels who joined him, should have their freedom for their loyalty. He gathered thus a thousand men. But Bacon besieged Jamestown, captured Lady Berkeley, drove her husband away, and set fire to the town. He then went across to Gloucester and to Accomac. But his health gave way, and he died quite suddenly, and the rebellion died with him. Berkeley glutted his ferocity with the death and ruin of his enemies, although the assembly seems to have supported him in his vengeance. The commissioners, sent out from England to investigate the rebellion, found their chief task to be defending the insurgents from the

**1677.** furious Governor, and in **1677** he was recalled to end his days in disgrace. But the colonists were very angry when the burden of a military establishment was put upon them, and material distress sharpened their exasperation.

§ 703. *Lord Culpepper.* The grantee of Charles II., regarded in the colony as an enemy and an extortioner, was made governor in **1677**, but came to the colony in **1682**. His instructions were to restrict the franchise, and to leave only the shadow of self-government. All laws were, in the future, to originate with the governor and the council, then to be submitted to the crown and only when approved, considered by the Assembly. Yet even here one important exception was made: "money bills" were left to the colonists. Culpepper, however,

*Lord Howard,* failed to enforce the royal authority, and was replaced by *Lord Howard,* the most pliant of all the useful implements of the Stuarts. His instructions forbade the setting up of a printing press in Virginia. Yet even he recognized the exclusive right of the assembly to impose taxes. Howard was instructed also to grant liberty of conscience to non-conformists. This was a new policy in Virginia. For the three parishes of independents that existed in the colony in **1642**, to whom ministers were sent from Boston, had been persecuted by the Assembly; the people fined, the ministers banished, and finally all forced to take refuge with Lord Baltimore, in Anne Arundel county. When the English expelled James Stuart,

*Francis Nicholson.* the Virginians got rid of Howard and his greedy tyranny. Francis Nicholson, the new lieutenant governor, opened for the colonists a new era. He told the truth to his superiors in England; he pointed out unsparingly the defects and dangers of the English commercial policy; he urged the certainty of French encroachments, the necessity of colonial union, the dilapidated condition of the forts, and the feebleness of the militia. He re-organized the church, fixing the stipends of the clergy, and providing glebes and parsonages in every parish. With the help of Blair, he est-

**1700.** tablished the college of William and Mary, where the first class was

graduated in 1700, the year in which de Richebourg and his Huguenots arrived in Virginia.

§ 704. In 1710, Alexander Spotswood, the ablest of all the royal governors, brought the writ of *habeas corpus*, and received a handsome palace from the grateful colonists.

The tobacco-crop was worth, at the time, £20,000 a year. The population was large and varied; English along the river banks, Germans in the interior, Scotch-Irish in the Shenandoah Valley and on the western frontier. The English planters constituted the aristocracy;—prodigals when the tobacco market kept them in funds, paupers when the crop failed, or the market fell. Nevertheless, troublesome to Spotswood, because of their political-independence.

§ 705. Governor Gooch granted toleration to the Presbyterians in 1727, Richmond was laid out in 1733, and the Virginia Gazette started in 1736. George Whitefield stirred up both church-men and dissenters a few years later, and in

1751. 1751 Robert Dinwiddie began his struggle with the Virginia aristocracy. Governor Dinwiddie needed money to defend the frontiers; the Assembly was stingy and suspicious, voting money only when frightened to it by the shadows and warwhoops of approaching Frenchmen and Indians; and even then they watched Dinwiddie's fingers with their committee of control.



LORD BALTIMORE.

§ 706. *Maryland*.—Sir George Calvert, a favorite of James I., became a Catholic in 1618; his conversion cost him all chances of a public career in England, so as a consolation from the King, he obtained a patent, or a grant of land in Newfoundland, and the title of Lord Baltimore. The frosts of the North and the persecuting zeal of the Puritans drove him to Virginia, whence he was driven by the hostility of the Assembly. He thereupon sought and obtained the grant of Mary-

1632.

land, and then in the same year, 1632, dying, left it to his energetic and sagacious son, Cecilius Calvert.

The charter of Maryland made the proprietor almost independent of the crown. The only limitation to this, was a requirement that all places of worship in Maryland should be consecrated according to the ecclesiastical laws of the Church of England. It is plain therefore that the colony was not intended, either by Lord Baltimore or the King, as a stronghold of Romanism, nor were the first colonists exclusively Roman Catholics. Yet they were probably in a majority. They were three hundred in all, mostly artisans and farmers. In 1635, a year after the settlers landed, all the freemen of the colony, met in legislative assembly. In 1638 the freemen, unable to be present at the second assembly, sent their proxies. A conflict broke out almost immediately between the colonists and the proprietor, as to who should propose laws, in which the colonists won. In 1639 the Assembly became a representative body, and in 1647 it was divided into a House of Burgesses elected by the freemen, and an upper House consisting of the Governor's council, and deputies summoned by the proprietor.

§ 707. *The Dispute With Virginia*.—*Clayborne*.—Kent Island, on Chesapeake Bay, was of especial value to Virginia. Here William Clayborne had established a trading post, from which Governor Calvert, the brother of the proprietor, drove him forcibly. In 1625 the King had taken both sides, enjoining Virginia to assist Clayborne, and enjoining Harvey, the Governor of Virginia, to support Lord Balti-

1622.

more. Clayborne attacked the Marylanders in 1634, but was defeated. Clayborne then petitioned the King for redress, but Baltimore was finally confirmed in his claims  
 1644. to the Isle of Kent. In 1644 Richard Ingle, apparently a Puritan, joined Clayborne in an attack upon Maryland. But after a brief success, they were driven from St. Mary's, which they had seized and plundered.

§ 708. *The Law Concerning Religion.*—The non-conformists, driven from Virginia, took refuge in Maryland. In 1650 their two communities numbered one hundred and forty householders. These and the Kent Island malcontents might at any  
 1650. moment make trouble for a Catholic proprietor. Nevertheless, in 1650, the Assembly passed laws to meet the wishes of Lord Baltimore. These laws made it a capital crime to deny the doctrine of the Trinity, punished blasphemy of the Virgin or the saints with fine, whipping, and banishment, but contained a general clause, giving full toleration to all Christians.

§ 709. *Maryland Under the Commonwealth.*—When the parliamentary commissioners finished their task in Virginia, in 1652, they turned to Maryland. The Governor resisted their demands for a season, but soon yielded. But in 1654, Lord Baltimore reasserted his authority as lord proprietor; whereupon the commissioners of Parliament marched into Maryland, deposed the Governor, disfranchised the Roman Catholics, convened a parliament of Puritans, and attacked the possessory rights of  
 1655. Lord Baltimore. In 1655 civil war broke out. Stone, acting for Lord Baltimore, set out with two hundred men to attack the Puritans of Anne Arundel. But he was hopelessly defeated. Nearly all were taken prisoners, and four of his chief adherents were put to death. Baltimore however succeeded in persuading the commissioners to an agreement containing the following points: (1.) His patent was acknowledged; (2.) All disputes were referred to the lord protector; (3.) No confiscations were to be made; (4.) The law giving freedom of worship was not to be repealed.

§ 710. The Restoration in England produced no change in Maryland. But under the third Lord Baltimore, dissensions began again.

Bacon's rebellion in Virginia stirred up the Protestants of Maryland; the increased activity of the Jesuits added to their dislike of a Catholic proprietor: his boundary disputes with William Penn alienated the Quakers of Maryland. In 1683,

1683. Baltimore left the colony, and in 1689, upon the news of the expulsion

1689. of King James II. from England, a revolution took place, which brought Maryland under the direct control of the crown. Under William and Mary the Church of England was established, in 1692. But not until 1700 was any provision made for the support of the clergy. In 1715 the fourth Lord Baltimore became a Protestant, and his proprietary rights were revived. But although the city of

1729. Baltimore, founded in 1729, was named after him, his power had gone irrecoverably. He had the dignity, but not the authority of his ancestors.

Francis Nicholson, whose coming to Virginia meant so much for that colony, was for a time governor of Maryland, and persuaded the Assembly, not only to endow a  
 1696. free school at St. Mary's, but to extend the system throughout the colony.

§ 711. *The Carolinas.* Charles II. of England, after whom the Carolinas and Charleston were named, granted an immense tract of land, in 1663, to Lord Clarendon



and seven associates. Like all the English grants, it extended westward to the Pacific. Under this patent of Lord Clarendon, there were originally four settlements.

1. A settlement for Virginia on the Albemarle river; this was the germ of  
1663. North Carolina.

2. A settlement from New New England near Cape Fear; this was absorbed into the former.

1665. 3. A settlement from Barbadoes, near Cape Fear.

4. An English settlement at Charleston; this was the nucleus of South Carolina.

In 1667 John Locke drew up, for the proprietors, a scheme of government called the Fundamental Constitution of Carolina. Under it voters and jurymen must have a freehold of at least fifty acres; members of Parliament, one of five hundred acres. In short, the government was to be a landed aristocracy, with the proprietors at the head. But these fundamentals were poorly adapted to a growing colony in a new world; they were inoperative from the beginning. In 1676, contemporaneous with Bacon's rebellion in Virginia, there was a rebellion against the proprietors in "our colony northeast of Cape Fear."

§ 712. *North Carolina.* The name North Carolina came into use about 1696. In 1711 another rebellion occurred. But in each case order was re-established without severe measures. The same year an Indian war resulted in the ruin of the Tuscarora

1713. tribe. In 1713 the Church of England was established by law and nine parishes created, but liberty of conscience was granted to dissenters. North Carolina, in 1720, had little to attract the settler. Horses and swine abounded, as these required no attention; horned cattle were unknown; even hunting was not practiced; and the slothful inhabitants grew weak by living wholly upon pork. Slavery existed, but was an unmixed evil; alien debtors were protected, and Edenton was the one capital in the world that had no place of worship.

§ 713. *South Carolina.* The colony in the south had quite a different history. Charleston was settled in 1672. It was regularly laid out in large, convenient and uniform streets. The colonists came from England, the Bahamas and Barbadoes, and from Ireland. They were reinforced by Scotch Presbyterians and French Huguenots. The Scotch were attacked by the Spaniards, who were allied with the Indians, the latter attacking the colonists because of their kidnapping and enslavement of the natives. In 1701 the colonists invaded Florida and captured St. Augustine, but were driven away by Spanish vessels; and in 1706 an allied French and Spanish fleet attacked Charleston from the sea. Stout-hearted Governor Johnson, in spite of the yellow fever, refused to surrender and drove the enemy away.

But dissensions about religion kept the people apart. A high church party was determined to establish the English church, and to destroy dissent. This was prevented, however, by the King's veto of the act of conformity, passed by the Assembly,  
1715 in the fall of 1706. Indians and pirates harassed the colony; to put them down cost money. A heavy debt was incurred; paper money was issued to discharge it. Misery and dissension followed. The few gained; the many became poor. This bred discontent and rebellion.

§ 714. In 1719 the colonists renounced allegiance to the proprietors, and overthrew their government. The proprietors took no steps to re-establish their authority,

and Nicholson, whom we have seen already active in Virginia and Maryland, was sent to administer the government in the name of the king. In 1729 the crown and the Parliament of England paid to the proprietors £17,500 for their claims over both colonies, and these became royal provinces. Rice was introduced into South Carolina before the year 1691; it made it ultimately rich, and it fastened Negro slavery upon the people. It made a cheap food for the African, who cultivated it so much better than the Europeans. Charleston became a centre of culture and of aristocratic life, for this profitable slave labor enabled the city population to lead a life of leisure; and their position on the sea coast kept them in contact with the European world. "Their co-habiting in a town," wrote Lawson, "had drawn to



JAMES OGLETHORPE.

them ingenious people of most sciences, whereby they have tutors among them that educate their youth *à la mode*." And rice-growing being adapted to small holdings, this aristocratic class became quite large. Maryland and Virginia were colonies of large plantations and large slave-gangs. In Carolina thirty slaves was the average number to a rice-plantation. The subsequent history of South Carolina is all involved in the laying out of Charleston, and the introduction of the rice plant.

§ 715. *Georgia*.—"The trustees for establishing the colony of Georgia in America," received their charter in 1732. The objects of their association were benevolent, to provide new opportunities for men who had been unfortunate in England. James Oglethorpe, the soul of the enterprise, when a member of the House of Commons, had discovered that "not a few of those confined, for debt were guilty of no crime," were

of respectable families, and might become happy and useful citizens, if given another chance in an American colony. Moreover, he and his associates expected to protect South Carolina from Spanish depredations, and to attract emigrants from among the persecuted Protestants of the continent of Europe. One hundred and fourteen men, women, and children were selected for the first voyage. Oglethorpe conducted the party, but paid his own expenses, and gave his entire time to the enterprise that he



THE MAYFLOWER.

had conceived and inspired. The ship "Anne" with her thirty-five families arrived at

1733. Charleston in 1733. They were kindly received by the governor and council. The king's pilot conducted them to Port Royal, and Oglethorpe proceeded to the Savannah river, and chose the site for the town of the same name. The Indians were treated kindly, and their titles to the land amicably purchased. The settlers were soon joined by Italians from Piedmont, Salzburgers from Austria, and Moravians from Germany and Bohemia, and finally by fighting Highlanders, under the Rev. John McLeod of the Isle of Skye. Oglethorpe had induced the trustees to prohibit the importation of rum, brandy and distilled liquors, and the use of negro slaves. The colonists petitioned long and earnestly for the removal of these restrictions. In 1736 Oglethorpe

1736. brought a second party to Georgia, among whom were John and

Charles Wesley. These were to build and occupy a military town on the southern border to be called Frederica. This soon became the rallying point of British colonists on the Spanish frontiers. Oglethorpe, who was made commander-in-chief of His Majesty's forces in South Carolina and Georgia, had his headquarters in the island of St. Simon (Frederica), which he defended long and successfully against the Spaniards. But the General was compelled to draw upon his private fortune to sus-



tain the colony. The colonists clamored for Negroes to work in the swamps: the Wesleys quitted the province in discouragement; Whitefield went about begging for his college at Savannah, and the colonists were far from prosperous, or even contented.

1740. The Spanish, threatening to attack them, Oglethorpe invaded Florida, but his expedition proved a failure. Two years later, Savannah was attacked by a Spanish fleet, and five thousand troops. But the skill and bravery of Oglethorpe put them both to flight. In 1741 the restrictions on the importation of rum and slaves were removed; the attempts to cultivate silk and the vine were abandoned; cotton



PLYMOUTH ROCK.

and rice became the staple products of Georgia, and the colony prospered fairly. In

1754. 1754 the trustees gave up their charter, and the colony reverted to the crown. In that year the exports were to the amount of £30,000; in 1775, they reached £200,000.

#### *b. The Puritan Colonies.*

§ 716. *Plymouth.*—"Some of the strangers among them had let fall from them in the ship, that when they came ashore they would use their own liberty, for none

had power to command them, the patent they had being for Virginia and not for New England, which belonged to another government, with which the Virginia Company had nothing to do." These are the words of William Bradford. "The ship" was the

1620. Mayflower, in which Bradford sailed to Plymouth Bay, in 1620. The result of this muttering of strangers was the Mayflower compact, which was signed by all the emigrants. It sets forth that for "the glory of God, the advancement of the Christian faith and the honor of the king and the country of England," the subscribers have undertaken "to plant a colony in the northern parts of Virginia."

These colonists, a hundred and twenty in all, sailed from Southampton, on the 5th of August, 1620. The "strangers" were a few recruits who had joined them in



PILGRIMS RECEIVING MASSASOIT.

England, the rest were an organized band from the congregation of the Rev. John Robinson in Leyden. This congregation consisted of English independents or separatists, who had fled from Scrooby, England, in 1608. The refugees, after staying a year in Amsterdam, removed to Leyden, where they "continued for many years in a comfortable condition, enjoying much sweet and delightful society and spiritual comfort together." But the manners of the Dutch, the difficulty of training their children, the fear of the dissolution of their beloved society under foreign influences, their desire to recover their citizenship in England, and their "hope of advancing the gospel of the Kingdom of Christ in the remote parts of the world, led them to think of America, and to negotiate with the Virginia Company. The conditions imposed upon the "Pilgrims," as they called themselves, were these. At the end of seven years the





THE PILGRIMS AT PLYMOUTH.

(pp. 813.)



fruits of their toil must be divided equally between the emigrants and the company.

1627. This partnership, however, did not last, the colonists buying out the stocks of the English holders in their plantation.

§ 717. In spite of all efforts to reach Virginia, the Pilgrims were forced to land at Cape Cod. The whole party sailed thence to Plymouth, on December 15, 1620, that site being chosen for the settlement. Their first winter would "have discouraged other men whom small things can discourage, or small discontentment cause to wish themselves home again." Pestilence had thinned out the savages who, moreover, had been warned by a returned captive to dread "the white man's God." They formed an alliance with the Indian chief, Massasoit, which was steadfastly and honorably observed on both sides. John Carver was the first governor of Plymouth, but as

1621. he died within a year, William Bradford was chosen to fill his place, and re-chosen annually thirty-one out of thirty-six times, he sometimes begging for a rest.

Originally the economic system of the Pilgrims was communistic; all the products of the toil went into a common stock. The experiment failed. In 1623, a portion of land was allotted annually to each householder; this also proved unsatisfactory. And in 1624 one acre was allotted permanently to each householder, each holding however to be near the town.

§ 718. This town stood on a ridge about twenty yards from the sea. Two streets crossed each other, and the Governor's house was at their intersection. On a hill behind the town was a building which was at once a fort, a church, and a public store-house. The houses were log-buts. The whole was surrounded by a palisade, and all the entrances, except that from the sea, guarded by gates. The arable land lay to the south, and beyond that *the common* or everybody's pasture. In 1639 all who became householders were required to obtain the approval of the governor and council, but before that, "untoward people" had been rigidly excluded. Captain Miles Standish took a leading part in extending the settlement to the North, and in the building of new towns. A representative system followed, the assembly of all the freemen being quietly superseded. A number of private settlements were started up along the shore, among them "Merrymount" where people "frisked like fairies, or rather like furies," round a may-pole, and where strong liquor was drunk early and often. Standish marched against "Merrymount," seized Morton, the head of the offenders, and the Plymouth governor sent him to England.

§ 719. Other settlements grew into Maine and New Hampshire, and a few were swallowed up by the colony of Massachusetts Bay. The settlers of Plymouth established stations for the fur trades north of the Kennebec; these were attacked by the French. They appealed for help to Massachusetts, but without success. Not until

1643. 1643 were the Articles of Confederation framed and signed, in which Plymouth became one of "The United Colonies of New England." But it continued

1692. its separate existence until 1692, when a new charter, sent out by William III., consolidated Plymouth, Massachusetts, and Maine into a single province.

§ 720. *Massachusetts Bay Colony*.—The humble fugitives from Scrooby suggested to certain wealthy Puritans a larger project and a mightier settlement. They procured from the New England Council of the King a grant of all the territory from the Merrimac to the Charles river. The indented coast included in this grant extends

about forty-five miles; inland of course the grant stretched indefinitely westward. One of the six grantees was John Endicott, afterward conspicuous as Governor of Massachusetts. He was sent out by his associates to spy out the land, and prepare for the  
 1629. future plantation. In March, 1629, they obtained a royal charter, creating the governor and company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. This corporation were to elect annually a governor, deputy governor, and eighteen assistants, who were to hold meetings monthly. General meetings of the company were to



JOHN ENDICOTT.

be held four times a year. This was the charter, not of a town or of a state, but of a private corporation. The emigrants consisted of shareholders and non-shareholders, the former receiving two hundred acres for every fifty pounds invested, and fifty for each member of his family, the latter fifty acres, with the same quantity for each servant exported by him. Three ministers were engaged, of whom two, Higginson and Skelton, ended their days in the colony. All three were non-conformists, and graduates of Cambridge, but none was a separatist. There were in all three hundred

and fifty emigrants, amply supplied with live stock and what was needed for success.

**1629.** As soon as they arrived at Salem, the settlers established themselves as Puritans, and among their first acts, was to expel two brothers, John and Samuel Browne, who insisted upon using the Book of Common Prayer. The next step was to make the colony an independent commonwealth. This was done by transferring the government of the company to those in America.

§ 721. Influential and wealthy emigrants now appeared, among them John Winthrop, John Humphrey, and Thomas Dudley. These arriving out, found the

colony in great distress, from which they were saved by dispersing into separate settlements. Winthrop had been appointed governor, but the first political change in the colony was to limit the rights of the freemen: (1), by transferring legislative authority to the governor and his assistants; (2), by taking from the freemen the right to elect the governor, and giving it to the assistants.

Winthrop was no believer in democracy. "The best part of a community," he wrote to Hooker, "is always the least, and of that least part, the wiser are still less." And his blameless character and great mental ability made him dangerous to popular liberty; yet



JOHN WINTHROP.

Dudley and others were vigilant and zealous of their rights. In 1634 a sharp conflict took place, in which the General Court recovered the full power of elec-

**1634.** tion and legislation. And Dudley was elected Governor by a secret ballot. In 1631 a law had been passed, confining the freemen of the colony to members of the church. Others might be received, and obtain certain civic rights, but they could have no share in general or in local government. Even the captain of the town train-bands must be a church-member, though all the inhabitants might join in his election.



§ 722. *Roger Williams*.—The church of Salem rejoiced in a brilliant, zealous and combative minister, whose peculiarities speedily excited the alarm of leading men. For he maintained that church and state should be separated, that religious acts should not be enforced by civil authority, that the soil belonged to the natives, and that to accept a royal patent was a sin.

It was an inopportune time for such teachings. Laud and the Privy Council were watching Massachusetts with anxious eyes. Emigrants were not allowed to leave England without taking the oath of allegiance, and promising conformity to the Prayer Book.

And "King Winthrop," with his associates, were warned that a governor would be sent out by the crown, and the Church of England established. But Williams, growing more disputatious, exhorted his congregation to renounce communion with all other churches in the colony. They refused, whereupon he withdrew. But John Endicott, "inspired by the notions of Mr. Roger Williams," cut the red cross from the royal colors. For this Endicott was punished by the General Court, and Williams was

1635. tried the following October. He was sentenced to leave the colony within six weeks, then suffered to stay until spring, if he would remain quiet. But for him to propagate his "notions" was as necessary as to breathe. He gathered disciples to form a new settlement on the beautiful shores of Narragansett Bay. The General Court determined to prevent this, ordered him to be seized and sent to England. He escaped, and after incredible hardships, made his way to his new home.

§ 723. *Anne Hutchinson*.—In 1636 Henry Vane was elected governor. In the same year Anne Hutchinson brought "two dangerous creeds" to Boston, and the colony was soon divided into two religious parties. Wheelwright, a brother of Mrs. Hutchinson, and pastor of the Boston church, was punished for sedition. His people remonstrated. A council of divines at Newtown condemned the new teachings as unsafe. And the General Court "finding that two so opposite parties could not contain in the same body without hazard of ruin to the whole, agreed to send away some of the principals." Wheelwright and Mrs. Hutchinson refused to go. The former was

1637. banished. The latter was tried, and the report of her trial shows her to have been a woman of extraordinary strength of mind and dignity of soul, brave, 1638. self-reliant, humble and alive to God. She was excommunicated, banished, and, like Roger Williams, found a home near Narragansett Bay.

§ 724. The colony was making enemies quite rapidly at home and abroad; the King and Laud were about to lay strong hands upon it, when the Scotch rebellion broke out, that brought king and bishop both to the scaffold.

Boundary disputes, danger from the Indians, from the Dutch on the Hudson, and from the French on the north, led Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven to form the confederation of 1643, "to advance the kingdom of our Lord Jesus Christ, and to enjoy the liberties of the gospel in purity and peace." This was called The United Colonies of New England, although Rhode Island and Maine

1643. were haughtily excluded. By that year twenty-one thousand two hundred emigrants had come out to Massachusetts, Plymouth numbering then about four thousand inhabitants. But the triumph of the revolution in England stayed the tide of emigration for a season. The settlers married early, and their families were large, though many children died in infancy. The man who could find no township

to admit him could not dwell in the colony, and the man who could find no church to receive him could enjoy no civil rights. When a new town was created, a tract of land was vested in seven trustees, who agreed to build houses, and to grant plots of land to all settlers who were not of "exorbitant and turbulent spirit, unfit for civil society." Each received two plots, a home lot in the meadow and a piece of "upland." Original settlers paid a rent of six pence an acre, those coming later a shilling. A



WAMPANOAG INDIAN.

meeting house was built at public cost, a minister chosen, and a church formed before the trustees exercised their powers. The township was the landholder, and watched jealously to prevent the extension of individual rights.

In 1647 two classes of schools were established. The elementary school in towns of fifty house-holders, and the grammar school wherever there was a hundred. This was really a supplement to the act creating Harvard College, which was in the beginning "A Grammar School." The Cambridge scholars and their Oxford colleagues introduced the legislature to grant £400 for the creation of the since famous school. This was followed by John

Harvard's legacy of £700, and two hundred and sixty volumes. In 1638 the first printing press was set up at Cambridge, and the Bay Psalm book was printed the next year.

§ 725. *The Baptists and Quakers.*—In 1644, to deny the validity of infant baptism, or the necessity of civil magistracy, was made a crime. In 1651 three Baptists

were arrested, immediately upon their arrival, by Governor Endicott. One of them was flogged, and all of them expelled from the colony.

In 1656 two Quaker women, Ann Austin and Mary Fisher, were seized and confined in jail, their books were burnt, and their persons were searched

to discover the marks of witches. After five weeks in prison, they were sent to Barbadoes. These two first victims had done absolutely nothing to provoke such treatment. During their confinement the windows of the jail were boarded up, and to communicate with them was made a crime. Eight more arrived a little later, and then the General Court passed a law punishing shipmasters who brought Quakers to the colony, imprisoning and flogging any Quaker who might nevertheless arrive, and making it a crime to import or conceal Quaker books, or to defend Quaker opinions. The commissioners of the United Colonies even condescended to entreat Rhode Island to exclude all Quakers, a measure to which "the rule of charity did oblige them." Rhode Island answered that, "the Quakers least desired to come where they were suffered to declare themselves freely." And the Quakers justified the statement, for they poured into Massachusetts "to bear their testimony."



DEATH OF KING PHILIP.

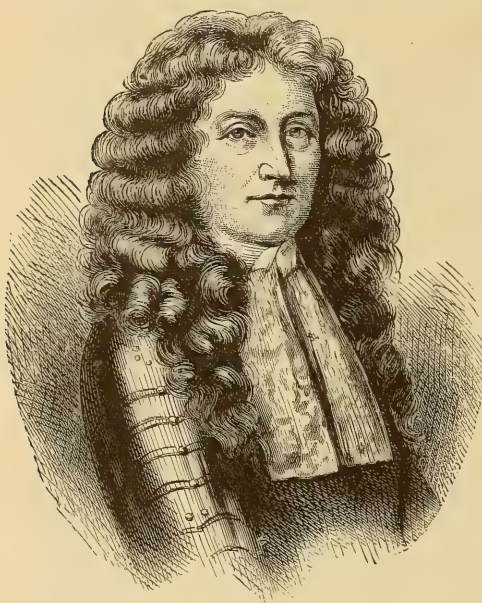
In 1658 a bill imposing upon Quakers fines, scourgings, imprisonment, banishment, and death, was passed without opposition by the governor's assistants, but earnestly opposed among the deputies where it succeeded only by a single vote. Four Quakers were hanged under this enactment, when



the community revolted and forced the abolition of the law, in spite of Endicott and the men who supported him.

The restoration now enabled the Quakers to appeal to King Charles II. The latter ordered Endicott to suspend all further proceeding against the Quakers. This order was sent to the humiliated Governor, by the hand of Shattucks, a Quaker, who had been scourged and banished twice from Massachusetts. The General Court was summoned, and all the Quakers were set at liberty.\*

§ 726. 1675 King Philip, the son of Massasoit, having formed an Indian league, **1675.** began a war upon the towns of southern and western Massachusetts, which wrought great havoc. Eliots "praying Indians" adhered to the whites; Philip



SIR EDMUND ANDROS.

succeed. Sir Edmund Andros, the first royal governor, was far from popular. When the news of the expulsion of James II. reached Boston, Andros was seized and **1689.** imprisoned, and the colony, or rather the theocracy, resumed its sway.

But the die was cast. A new charter had become necessary, and one came from **1692.** William III. in 1692. Massachusetts, Maine, Plymouth, and Nova Scotia were consolidated, toleration, except for papists, was established, the religious qualification was swept away, and a property qualification substituted. The towns

**1676.** was finally killed, and his head exposed for twenty years on a pole at Plymouth, and his wife and child were sold as slaves. But the Indians never again attacked the southern parts of New England.

§ 727. *The New Charter.* The cruelty to the Quakers was not the only charge against the colony; they were accused of violating the navigation laws, of coining money without authority, and of harboring the regicide judges. And after a **1684.** long and stubborn fight, their charter was withdrawn.

The agents of Massachusetts in London were instructed not to consent to any alterations in the qualifications of freemen. The clergy especially bestirred themselves to prevent the destruction of the theocracy. For a time it looked as if they might

\* This is a bare recital of facts. A comparison of dates, and a study of contemporary defenses of the Governor and his party, will show how flimsy are the modern pleas, in extenuation of this cruelty.

continued to elect the House of Representatives, and the Assembly chose the Council, subject to the approval of the executive. The governor, lieutenant governor, and secretary were appointed by the king, who reserved the right to disallow legislation within three years of its passage.

§ 728. *The Salem Witchcraft.* The year of the new charter was the year of the **1692.** Salem Witchcraft. In 1683-4 Increase Mather had published his "Illustrious Providences." In the fall of 1688 four children of a Boston mason began to mimic the symptoms described in that exciting book, and spoken of so frequently. The same symptoms appeared in Salem in February 1692. In June, Governor Phips created arbitrarily a court to try witches, placing William Stoughton at its head. Before October nineteen persons had been hanged, eight lay condemned, others had fled or been beggared, while two hundred were accused and in mortal terror of arrest. No one was safe; pastors and pastors' wives (even the wife of the Governor) were threatened. A few men of steady nerves and sterling character resisted the delusion from the outset, but Thomas Brattle was the first to protest openly against the proceedings of the court. A reaction set in; Phips suspended the sittings of his illegal tribunal; and the power of the Mathers, father and son, who were the chief supporters of the witchcraft persecutions, waned rapidly.

§ 729. In 1700 the population of Massachusetts was in the neighborhood of fifty thousand and the colony employed two hundred ships, of which twenty were over a hundred tons burden, and sixty more over fifty. Slavery began to spread and to become a subject of legislation, and of discussion. Sewall attacked it in his "Selling of Joseph," as contrary to nature, scripture, and sound policy. Early in the century, Harvard college passed from the control of the Mathers, and into liberal hands, which

**1700.** led to the founding of Yale college, as a new stronghold for the old orthodoxy. In 1725 the settlement of western Massachusetts was begun, and in 1734 the "Great Awakening in New England" started with Jonathan Edwards, and continued under George Whitefield and his helpers. During this time the colony was in constant danger from the French, and their Indian allies, but the population increased with great rapidity, and Boston became a vigorous town. She sent to sea twice as many vessels as New York, and her ship yards were humming with activity. In

**1744.** 1744, a hundred sail of transports sailed from Boston harbor, carrying three thousand two hundred and fifty soldiers of the colony to effect the capture of Louisburg. The conquest of Canada was at hand.

§ 730. *Connecticut.*—A movement of Massachusetts farmers to the Connecticut valley began in 1634. It was at first opposed, but soon acquiesced in by the Legislature, which, however, insisted that the emigrants should remain under the control of Massachusetts. Wethersfield and Windsor were settled in 1635 by people from Boston; Hartford in 1636, by the congregation of the Rev. Thomas Hooker, who started from Newtown (Cambridge.) This emigration from Massachusetts was resented by the colony of Plymouth, the Dutch of New Amsterdam, and the Pequod

**1637.** Indians. The Pequod's were soon exterminated, the Dutch were shut out by the fort at Saybrook, built by John Winthrop, "Governor of the River of Connecticut," and the settlers from Plymouth were told, by the men of Dorchester, that the territory which they had bought from the Mohicans and held manfully against the Dutch, was the

"Lord's Waste." Reluctantly enough they compromised with these greedy intruders upon their rights; but Hooker's people had no part in the quarrel.

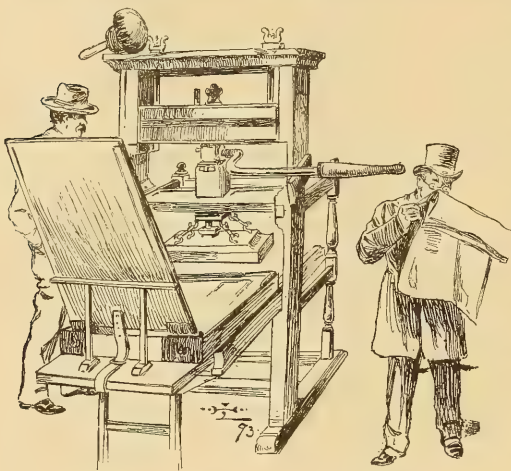
In 1639 the three towns drew up the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, the first written constitution known in history. This extraordinary document is really a declaration of independence, primarily from the authority of Massachusetts, but impliedly from any sovereignty save that of God; for no mention is made of any other sovereign. It established not a theocracy, however, but a community.

§ 731. New Haven, founded by the congregation of the Rev. John Davenport, in 1638, excluded all but church members from voting and from office; and in 1644 this colony declared "the judicial laws of God as they were delivered by Moses," binding upon the people. The Connecticut towns however established a genuine re-

public, making all citizens politically equal, and they obtained from Charles II. a

1662. charter which confirmed their right of self-government. In May 1643, "the Plantations, under the Government of Connecticut," and "the Government of New Haven," with her "Plantations" helped to form the "United Colonies of New England."

A curious legend, destitute unfortunately of any contemporary record, tells of the hiding of the Connecticut charter in the old oak tree at Hartford. Sir Edmund Andros, in the name of King James II., demanded of the



FIRST PRINTING PRESS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.—1742.

Assembly the surrender of his charter. It was brought in and placed upon the table.

1687. Suddenly the candles were blown out. When they were relighted the charter had disappeared. At the foot of the records for 1687 Andros's proceedings are written out, and beneath this declaration appears the word "FINIS."

§ 732. *New Hampshire*.—The Rev. John Wheelwright, the friend of Anne Hutchinson, when driven from Massachusetts in 1628, settled with several of his

1629. congregation, the town of Exeter, New Hampshire. This name was given to the country by Captain John Mason, a native of Hampshire, England, who held it under a grant from the "Council for New England." Dover was settled as early as 1627, by English colonists; Londonderry, the home of the Scotch-Irish flax-

1641. spinners, not until 1719. In 1641 New Hampshire came under the jurisdiction and protection of Massachusetts, but in 1679 it became a royal province.

*Maine*.—The Popham colony, founded in 1607, ended disastrously; the region be-



tween the Kennebec and Penobscot was settled in 1625, and Portland in 1632. From 1652 to 1820 the territory was controlled by Massachusetts.

§ 733. *Rhode Island*.—Roger Williams escaped the perils of the wilderness by the help of his Indian friends. The wigwams of Massasoit received the preacher whom Massachusetts had cast out to the winter storms, and to such food and shelter as he might discover. He and five friends built a cabin on the Seekonk river; but he was ordered to move on by the authorities of Plymouth. He then crossed the river lower down; the Indians called out "What cheer," and guided the exile and his party to

1636. the site called by the grateful Christian, Providence. Williams' first thought was to Christianize the Indians, not to colonize the country. In fact, Rhode Island colonized itself, and Williams simply gave it splendid opportunities.

First he granted toleration to every form of religious belief, and even to forms of unbelief; and secondly he procured, in 1644, a charter uniting the scattered colonies of Rhode Island into a single province, with the privileges and the rights of self-government. These scattered colonies included Newport and Portsmouth,

1638-1639. which had been settled by William Coddington, Anne Hutchinson, and others, whom Massachusetts could not well endure.

Williams bought the land from his Indian friends. He organized the first Baptist church in America, and in 1640, the government was fairly established. In March, 1647, the Assembly declared formally, that the government "is a democrat or popular government, that is to say, the freemen, orderly assembled shall make just laws, by which they will be regulated."

None was to be "accounted a delinquent for doctrine," who was not "directly repugnant to the government or laws established." Massachusetts looked on in anger and contempt, foreboding and predicting ruin and divine wrath. Neither came.

### c. *Pennsylvania*.

§ 734. Most of the thirteen colonies bear the names of English monarchs or princes, for example, Virginia, the Carolinas, Maryland, Georgia, New York. Massachusetts and Connecticut have Indian names. Pennsylvania alone is a perpetual re-

1682. minder of its noble founder. Penn's Woods were granted to Wm. Penn to extinguish a claim which the distinguished Quaker held against the English king. These woods fronted on the Delaware river, and stretched indefinitely westward.



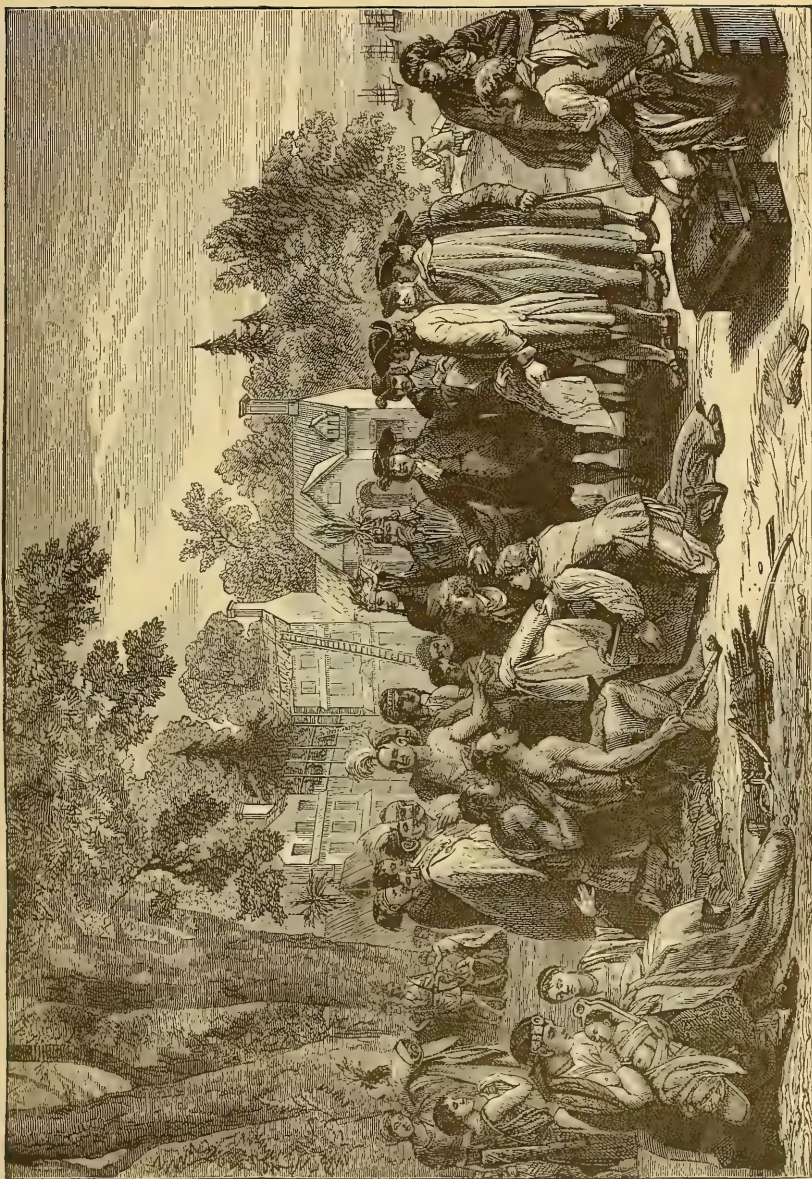
WILLIAM PENN.

Emigrants were sent out in 1681, but Penn himself did not sail with his hundred Quakers until the next year. The City of Brotherly Love (Philadelphia) had been planned before the company left England. Originally, Delaware belonged to the Duke of York. Penn purchased it before he sailed and landed at New Castle, October 1682. 27, 1682. Exhibiting his deeds from the Duke of York, he received the submission of the inhabitants (mostly Swedes or Finns).

"The Frame of Government" for Pennsylvania had been signed by Penn, April 25, 1682. "Time, place, and singular emergencies," would require, he said, alterations in this Frame. But this would form a good foundation. It provided for a governor and freemen: a provincial council consisting of seventy-two members, and an assembly of two hundred. All Christians, except bound servants and convicts, who paid taxes or took up land, were declared freemen. The assembly met December 4, 1682; the frame of government and the laws agreed upon in England were adopted; the Swedes were naturalized, and the Delaware counties included. The next year Penn granted a new 1683. charter "of more than was expected liberty," under which the government was administered till 1796. Liberty of conscience was granted, but the observance of the Sabbath was provided for. Plays and games, sports and lotteries were prohibited. Courts of justice were established, but causes of great importance were tried by the Council. Schools were ordained, and the laws were taught to the children.

In 1683 the first colony of Germans arrived from Crefeld. These were Mennonite linen weavers, who settled at Germantown, under the guidance of Francis Pastorius. This was the first wave of the great German immigration to America. In 1685 there were in all seven thousand two hundred people in the province, of which the English were not quite the half.

§ 735. Just before the Germans arrived, Penn met the principal Indian chiefs at 1683. Shackamaxon, on June 23, 1683. He thus describes the events of the day. "We agreed upon the purchase, and then great promises passed between us of kindness and good neighborhood. Indians and English must live in love as long as the sun gave light. A speech was made to the Indians in the name of all the Sachamakers or kings; first to tell them what was done, next to change them to live in peace with me, and the people under my government. At every sentence they shouted, and said *Amen* in their way." In 1685 Wm. Bradford established in Philadelphia, the first printing-press of the middle colonies. In 1690 paper and woollen mills were started. The Quakers had nine "meetings" (*i. e.* societies) in 1683. The Baptists had a church in 1684 or 1685. The Dutch had a church in New Castle, and the Swedes some half-starved clergymen. "For the love of God, me and the poor country be not so governmentish," wrote Penn, from England, whither he returned in 1684. But the colonists cared little for their founder or his interest. And the expulsion of the Stuarts led to Penn's arrest, and enforced inactivity in the affairs of his province. But in 1694 he was released and restored to his rights, so that in 1699 he visited his "woods" once more. He suppressed piracy and restricted the slave trade, but could get no money for the fortification of the king's frontiers. In 1702 the Delaware counties were given a separate Assembly, but quarrelling continued among the "governmentish" people. Penn's governors were rather feeble folk, and



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.



the proprietor could bring the assembly to terms, only by threatening to sell out to the crown.

§ 736. In 1721 the Iroquois held a great council with the whites at Conestoga, 1721. just after Governor Keith and his councils had determined to grow rich with *fiat* money. The people never had enough "to do business with." In 1749 a Pennsylvania pound was equal to about eleven shillings. Keith, the last governor appointed by Penn, was more popular with the province, than with Hannah Penn, the widow of the founder; and when displaced by her, he revenged himself by keeping the province in a turmoil. Governors were in frequent conflict with the Assembly, partly because of their instructions from the proprietors, and partly because of their own or the peoples' folly. In 1757 Benjamin Franklin won his first diplomatic victory. As agent of Pennsylvania, he laid the case of the province before the crown authorities, and the proprietors of Pennsylvania were defeated.

The colony was then the most flourishing in America. The free population numbered two hundred and twenty thousand, half of it from Germany; Moravians along the Lehigh, Swenckfelders on the Schuylkill, Dunkers along the Conestoga, Mennonites in Lancaster. Welsh, Irish, and Scotch came also. Yet so many undesirable elements arrived, that an act restricting immigration was passed early in 1729.

Iron works and forges were started along the Schuylkill river in 1718; in 1728 there were two furnaces in blast in Lancaster county. Philadelphia sent out annually a fleet of four hundred sail, and her Quakers grew rich in trading with the West Indies. Yet the country was more alluring than the town; ample acres were easily acquired, and labor was too scarce and dear to make manufacturing profitable.

d. *New York and New Jersey.*

§ 737. Under English rule New Netherlands became New York. But the Duke Aug. 27, 1664. of York would hear of no provincial assembly till 1683, and when he became King James II., would hear of it no longer. But when he lost his crown in 1688, Jacob Leisler took possession of the province to hold it for William and Mary, alleging a plot of Papists to deliver the country to the French of Canada. Leisler believed also in "no taxation without representation," and sought more power for the people. He and his son were hanged for their zeal, but Papists were disfranchised, priests and Jesuits excluded from the province, and the struggle for legislative authority started on its triumphant course. Sloughter, the first governor under William and Mary, was directed "to call an assembly of free-holders, and to follow the usage of our other plantations in America." Fletcher, who followed him, was a greedy scamp, who protected pirates and plundered the people. Bellamont came next and grew quite popular, but Cornbury stole the public monies, and provoked the Assembly to a quarrel with the crown. In 1731, Rip Van Dam claimed and received the salary of the governor, having acted in his place. An action was brought against him to compel the restoration of one half, and in order to win it, de Lancey was made chief justice, in place of Lewis Morris, who was summarily removed. Zenger's Weekly Journal thereupon attacked the governor. Zenger, the publisher, was tried for libel, and acquitted through the courage, skill, eloquence, and legal knowledge of Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia. His acquittal established the freedom of the press in the colonies, and



(pp. 827.)

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

also determined against the right of the king to establish courts, without consulting the local legislature. During Clarke's administration, occurred the negro plot of 1741. There was no plot, only a panic. But the accused were hanged or burned to death, or deported, to appease the scared inhabitants of the dirty little seaport. Sir Danvers Osborn came to New York as governor, in 1753. He looked sharply at the assembly, and exclaimed, "What have I come here for?" He then went out and hanged himself. This made de Lancey acting governor, who has been falsely accused of opposing the Plan of Union, agreed upon by the commissioners of all the colonies at Albany, in July, 1754.

§ 738. The population of the province had reached ninety thousand in 1750, but did not extend beyond the Hudson and the Mohawk valleys. New York city, with a population of perhaps twelve thousand, stopped at the present Wall Street, which takes its name from an old palisaded wall that formed the northern limit of the town.

The English conquered New Netherlands in 1664. The territory between the Hudson and the Delaware was then given to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. These were bought out by Quakers, who established a colony of religious liberty and civil equality. In 1702 the two Jerseys were placed in the hands of the

king, and in 1738 New Jersey was made a separate province. Complete religious freedom prevailing, members of nearly every sect came to the province. The Queen's College, now Rutgers's, was established in New Brunswick, and the College of New Jersey at Princeton, the latter in 1746, and the former in 1756. In 1765 New Jersey had one hundred and ninety-two churches of all denominations, except the Roman Catholic. Schools were probably connected with every church. The governor was appointed by the king.

## II. THE ENGLISH CONQUEST OF THE CONTINENT.

§ 739.



THE events of the eighteenth century determined the fate of the world for ages, probably, and the chief of these events was the triumphs of Frederick the Great and of William Pitt. The consequent failure of France gave India to England, and expelled the French from America. Yet the French and Indian war is too

important to be regarded merely as an episode in European history. It was a necessary, though not a final step to

the formation of the United States of America. The French claimed the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and rightfully enough. But they claimed also the whole continent west of the Alleghenay and forbade the English to cross the mountains. They had captivated all the Indians, except the Iroquois, who occupied the lake regions of Central New York; and with the help of their savage allies, they expected to restrict if not to conquer the English settlements. Duquesne, the gov-

ernor of Canada, sent an expedition to occupy the Ohio valley in 1753. Two forts had been already built, when a young militia officer, George Washington by name, arrived to inform the French commander that his forts were built on English territory, and that he would do well to move away.





DEATH OF GENERAL BRADDOCK. (*P. Philpoteaux.*) (pp. 829.)

The French smiled blandly, telling the Virginian that their orders unfortunately required them to remain. When Washington reported this to Dinwiddie, he was sent back by the governor, with two hundred men, to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio. A large force of Frenchmen moved down upon them, and suggested that they also move away, whereupon the Virginians thought it discretion to retire. A few days later, however, the impetuous Washington (he was only twenty-three) attacked the French, and thereby began the war. He was soon at the head of three hundred men, entrenched in Fort Necessity. But now the French turned upon him, and compelled him to capitulate. He was permitted to march out with the honors of war, though obliged to return to Virginia. The first encounter had proved disastrous.



MONTCALM.

§ 740. But early in 1755, General Braddock arrived at Hampton Roads, and at a conference in Alexandria, Virginia, it was agreed that Braddock should march against Fort Duquesne, Shirley should capture Niagara, Johnson, with an army of provincials, should seize Crown Point, and the troops of New England should fall upon the Acadian Peninsula.

But Braddock was defeated and killed, and his frightened troops fled all the way from the

July 9, 1755. Monongahela river (Pittsburg) to Fort Cumberland.

Braddock's death left Shirley, the governor of Massachusetts, the ranking British officer in the colonies. Keeping the bad news to himself, he pushed

on to Oswego, through wood and swamp. As his men struggled westward, they heard of Braddock's fate. They were worn out, and food was scarce; their boats were unfit for lake service, and the expedition against Niagara also came to naught.

William Johnson, a young Irishman, who had settled in the Mohawk Valley, had gained a singular influence with the Indians. To him was given command of the army against Crown Point. Most of the men were from New England, and several of them were men of far more experience in war than their commander. Among these were Phineas Lyman, the second in authority, Seth Pomeroy, Israel Putman, and John Stark. Through Lyman's skill and energy, Dieskau, the French general, was defeated

1755. and captured. Lyman was not even mentioned in Johnson's report of the fight, but William Johnson became a baronet, and received a grant of £5000 from

Parliament. Lyman urged a forward movement upon Ticonderoga, but Johnson delayed until it was too late, and then marched home again.

Montcalm succeeded Dieskau in command of the French. He at once visited Fort Ticonderoga (Carillon), and saw that all was in order. He then hastened to Montreal, gathered together three thousand men, and suddenly appeared at Fort

**1756.** Oswego. The garrison soon surrendered, and were almost massacred by the Indians, who had found much rum among the plunder. Both sides now watched each other, and retired to winter-quarters; the English regulars going to Boston, Philadelphia, and New York. The Indians and the rangers alone were active. Lake George and Lake Champlain resounded with the savage yells of the French allies, while Captain Rogers and Captain Putnam became famous for their encounters with the red men.

§ 741. Meanwhile Loudoun had succeeded Shirley in command of the English. But his dispositions and movements were absurd and disastrous. Montcalm attacked

**1757.** and destroyed Fort William Henry on Lake George, and then retired to Montreal.

William Pitt now came to power in England, and Loudoun was recalled. With the prescience of the future, that made him the greatest statesman of his time, Pitt made the colonial officer the equal of the regular, and changed at once the discontent of the provincials into enthusiastic loyalty. He made Colonel Amherst, Major General, and sent him to capture Louisbourg; and he selected invincible John Forbes to attack Fort Duquesne. Abercrombie, however, his choice for the campaign against Crown Point, was a bad misfit. Forbes determined, against the advice of Washington, not to move by Braddock's route, yet he listened carefully to the young Virginian in all other matters. Spending his time "between business and medicine," for he was desperately ill, Forbes pushed forward in spite of the winter and the lack of provisions, and reached Fort Duquesne just in time to hear the explosion of the French mines.

**1758.** The starving garrison blew up the fort and fled. He called the place Pittsburg, and marched back to Philadelphia, where he died a few months later. A new fort was built at Pittsburg; the garrison left there by Forbes was reinforced by Amherst, and the conquest of the Ohio Valley reasonably secure.

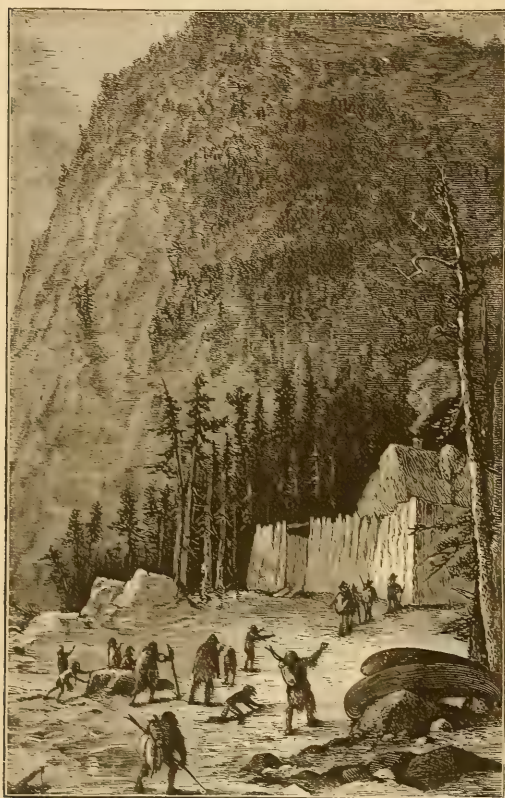
§ 742. Abercrombie meanwhile was disappointing Pitt. He hurled his soldiers uselessly against Fort Ticonderoga, and retreated, though his army was thirteen thou-

**1758.** sand strong. Bradstreet, however, captured and destroyed the French fort, Frontenac, thus cutting off supplies from Fort Duquesne, and helping materially the work of General Forbes. General Amherst now assumed command. He had taken Louisbourg, and immediately sent Prideaux to capture Fort Niagara. Johnson and a body of Indian braves were in the English camp. Prideaux was killed early in

**1759.** the siege, and Johnson, who succeeded him in command, compelled the surrender of the place. Meanwhile Amherst himself was pushing slowly northward, securing his rear, and driving the French before him. He advanced, however, rather slowly, to be of any service to General Wolfe, whom Pitt had sent to take Quebec. "The town-meeting pitted against bureau-crazy," exists only in the brain of the rhetorical historian. "The Titan that threw the cripple," was not the town-meeting, but the sagacity of William Pitt, in his choice of men, and the conjuncture of circumstances that supported the courage and the skill of General James Wolfe. Wolfe's fleet sailed from Louisbourg, in June, 1759. Quebec had ample supplies, and the



entrenchments were manned by fourteen thousand men, and a number of Indian allies. Gunboats and fire-ships were prepared to support the one hundred and six cannon, the city's chief defence. But the English fleet passed the French guns, which were stationed at the wrong place, and Wolfe landed his army of nine thousand men on the Island of Orleans. Montcalm tried to drive him off, but failed. Wolfe



FIRST SETTLEMENT AT QUEBEC.

occupied Point Levi, and rained shot and shell into the town, but having divided his army, was in no little danger. Montcalm, however, did not attack him. Wolfe divided his forces again, yet failed to provoke an attack. Then he moved himself, but without success; he was obliged to recall his men from sure destruction. Amherst was so slow! And now a messenger came to tell him that Amherst was not coming. Nothing remained but an attempt to gain the heights above the town.

Wolfe's Cove is a ravine not far from the town, leading to the Heights of Abraham. Three thousand six hundred men went down the river in boats, with their daring general, at the turn of the tide, while the British admiral made a demonstration in front of Montcalm. Wolfe, when hailed by the French sentries, quieted them with his explanations in their own

language, and the commander of the French troops, at the top of the ravine, had gone to sleep. In a few minutes the English general stood, with his men, in an open field on the Heights of Abraham, where Montcalm *must* fight him. The dilatory French general was transformed instantly into an impetuous commander. The French fell furiously upon the English line. Wolfe ordered his grenadiers to charge, himself leading the van. Twice he was struck, but on he rushed. A third shot bore him to the ground. "They fly! they fly!" he heard his men exclaiming, as he was borne



dying to the rear. "I die content," he murmured and expired. Montcalm was shot *Sept. 13.* just before he re-entered the town with his panic-stricken troops. The French held out for a few days, and then surrendered. Not long afterward, Montreal surrendered to Amherst, and on the 18th of September, 1759, all Canada passed to the English crown.

§ 743. Two episodes connected with the war are worthy of mention. The expulsion of the French from Acadia, and the conspiracy of Pontiac. The genius of Longfellow has given to the former the false coloring of persecution; in reality the English were quite justified in the measures they employed. The uprising of the *1763-1765* Indian tribes, under Pontiac, wrought great mischief on the frontiers. It was a failure, however, as the plot was betrayed by an Indian girl, to the commander of the fort at Detroit, and Pontiac was forced to sue for peace. By the treaty of 1763, the French gave up all their possessions in North America. The year before, New Orleans and the French territory west of the Mississippi had been transferred secretly to Spain, and was not retransferred to France until 1801. So that of all his vast domain in the New World, nothing was left to the French King, but two little islands near Newfoundland and his possessions in the West Indies.

### III. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

#### 1. THE STRUGGLE OF THE COLONISTS FOR THE RIGHTS OF ENGLISHMEN.

##### § 744.



THE English colonies in North America had their own legislatures and as we have seen, these legislatures guarded vigilantly the right of taxation. They had submitted reluctantly to the navigation acts, and the various acts of Parliament restricting their commerce and their manufactures; they had more than once contributed voluntarily to the King's service; but they were firmly grounded in the English principle that taxation and representation are inseparable; in other words, that no taxes could be laid upon a colony without the consent of the colonists themselves, expressed by their representatives.

But England was in sore straits for money and for statesmen. George III. has been described by a great English writer as a "meddling maniac." And the worst result of his disordered mind was his choice of ministers. Pitt he could not endure. He made peace to prevent his return to power. He sought for tools, not for advisers; for marionettes, not men. It was thus he obtained George Grenville for his minister, and lost the American colonies for England. For Grenville resolved to tax the colonies without their own consent. At first he proceeded cautiously, raising the import duties at colonial ports, and enforcing the navigation acts with great severity. In pursuance of the latter purpose "Writs of Assistance" were granted, which empowered the custom house officer to enter any shop or dwelling house, and search for smuggled goods. Now, although the illicit trade of the colonies was large and lucrative, the objection to these harsh and illegal measures came, not simply from the interested



smugglers, but from the wisest men in the colonies. They held that the navigation and revenue laws were exceedingly unjust, and that they could be made tolerable only by lenient and generous administration.

§ 745. Nevertheless, Grenville might have succeeded, if he had gone no further. But he determined upon the Stamp Act, a scheme that Sir Robert Walpole had re-  
 1765 jected as foolish and dangerous. The colonies sent Benjamin Franklin to England with a protest and an offer. They protested against the passage of the Stamp Act, and offered to vote in their colonial assemblies larger supplies to the crown than the Stamp Act would produce. But Grenville and George III. were resolved to pass it, and even Franklin counselled submission. The colonists were of different mind and Patrick Henry introduced into the House of Burgesses of Virginia a series of resolutions, which denied explicitly and emphatically the right of the British Parliament to meddle with internal taxation. Massachusetts followed with a proposal for a Continental Congress, to be composed

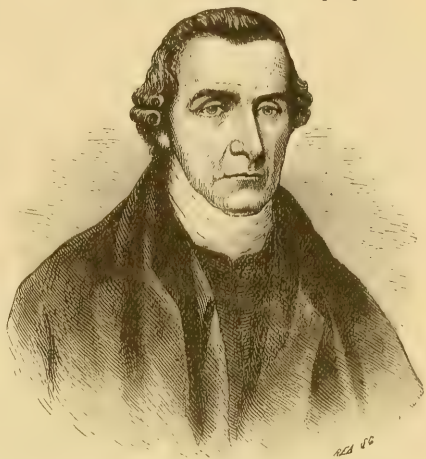
1765. of delegates from all the Colonial Assemblies. In October, 1765, this Congress met and repeated the protest and the petition of Virginia.

§ 746. Meanwhile the people of the colonies compelled the Stamp distributors to resign, and vigorously circulated non-importation agreements, pledging themselves to import no goods from England till the Stamp Act was repealed. Pitt, who had been ill and absent from Parliament when the act was passed, now returned and declared, "This kingdom has no right to lay a tax on the colonies. I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty, as voluntarily to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest." Pitt's opposition, supported as he was by the great lawyer, Lord Camden, and by Col. Barré, together with the famous examination of Dr. Frank-

1770. lin by a committee of the House of Commons, compelled the repeal of the obnoxious statute, and for a brief season, the colonies were in a tumult of great joy. The ungracious and unwise King persuaded his ministers, however, to put through parliament a declaratory act which Lord Camden denounced as "absolutely illegal." "Taxation and representation are inseparably united," said the future Lord Chancellor. "God hath joined them, and no British Parliament can put them asunder."

Pitt now returned to power, in spite of the King, but disease soon drove him out of office, and his retirement gave England the worthless ministry of the Duke of Grafton and Lord North, the ministry whose stupidity and stubbornness provoked the American revolution, and whose feebleness helped the colonists to their final triumph.

§ 747. Their first measure, in relation to the colonies, was a revenue bill, im-



PATRICK HENRY.

posing duties on tea, paper, glass, paints, and lead. The colonists determined not to import them, and not to import any British commodities. The British merchants, profoundly affected in their pockets, petitioned for the repeal of the law. The duties were thereupon taken from all articles, except tea. The Americans would import no tea. The Assembly of New York was dissolved on its refusal to provide quarters for British troops, the Assembly of Massachusetts was dissolved on a petty quarrel with the governor, and Boston was occupied with English soldiers. But the excitement in the colonies, and the remonstrances of colonial legislatures, led to the withdrawal of the troops: not, however, until an affray between the mob and the soldiers in Boston had dangerously inflamed the passions of the people.



DESTRUCTION OF TEA IN BOSTON HARBOR.

§ 748. But the "meddling mania," King George III., was fretting and fuming over the "fatal compliance of 1766," and lying in wait for an opportunity to strike. It soon came. The East India Company sent several cargoes of tea to the colonies. In New York and in Philadelphia, the people threatened vengeance upon any pilot that should guide the ships into the harbor: the vessels were obliged to return to England. But at Boston, Hutchinson was acting governor, and Hutchinson, being absolutely fearless, got the ships into port, and prevented their return. Thereupon a mob, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships, and poured the tea into the waters of the bay.

*Nov. 25. 1773.* The wisest patriots of America deplored the outrage, but the King was furious. He wanted, not redress, but revenge and repression. His obedient ministers and subservient Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill, closing the port of Boston

**June 1, 1774.** against all commerce. They altered the charter to the extent of virtually abrogating the liberties of Massachusetts, and they ordered persons accused of murder, to be sent to England for trial. A fourth statute provided for the sending of troops to America. Four regiments were

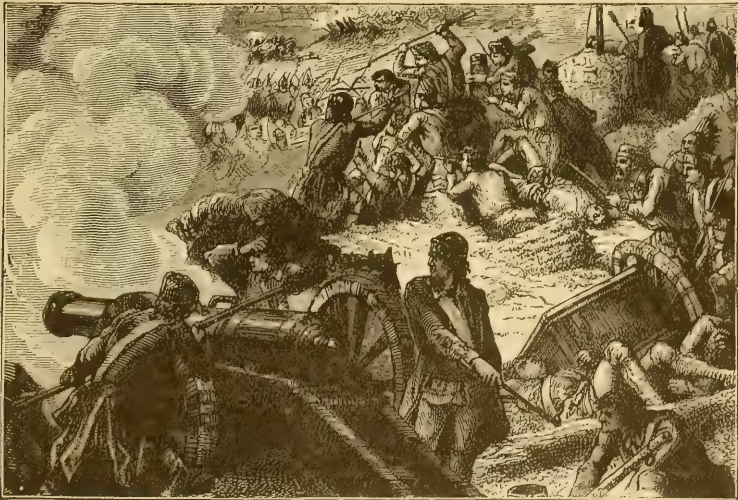
**1774.** sent to Boston; General Gage was appointed governor, and the people were to taste the sweets of military rule. "If we take the resolute part," muttered the King, "they will undoubtedly be very weak." And then to excite the colonists still further, the Quebec Act was passed, to prevent the Canadians from joining with the other provinces.

§ 749. The colonists, however, were anything but weak. All their legislatures, save that of Georgia, elected deputies to a Congress,

**1774.** which, assembled in Carpenters' Hall, at Philadelphia, on the 4th of September, 1774. This Congress met at the appointed time, and is forever memorable for its ability, its patriotism, and its moderation. The Declaration of Rights, adopted by the Congress, stated, with fullness and yet concisely,



CARPENTERS' HALL, PHILADELPHIA.



BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

the principles involved in the conflict; it stated with equal plainness and brevity the determination of the Americans "not to submit to the grievous acts and measures



passed in the last session of Parliament." It claimed for the colonists the rights of Englishmen, and chief among these, the privilege of participation in their own government. In January, 1775, Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, introduced a bill, which provided for the repeal of all the protested statutes, abandoned the claim to taxation, secured to the colonists their cherished charters, and ordered the recall of the troops. A colonial assembly was ordered to convene, and provide means by which America might contribute toward the payment of the public debt. But the "meddling maniac" would have none of Chatham's wisdom, and the ministry echoed the King's decree. The measure of the great statesman was contemptuously rejected.

§ 750. The American Congress had advised another assembly for the following May, but before it convened, the king's troops had a conflict with the minute men

*April 19, 1775.* of Lexington, Mass. General Gage had sent some men to destroy the



ISRAEL PUTNAM.

military stores which the patriots had collected at Concord. The British Colonel, Smith, ordered the "minute men" to disperse and fired upon them immediately. Returning to Boston, he found the roads lined with sharpshooters, and before he reached Charlestown harbor, he lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, two hundred and seventy men. In a few days men poured into Boston from the surrounding country; without arms or ammunition or organization they expected to reduce the British army, and to conquer their freedom.

Ethan Allan and Seth Warner bethought them of Ticonderaga and Crown Point. There the garrisons were slender, and the stores were plenty. In May, 1775, they hurried down to Boston with two hundred captured cannons, and powder enough to make them efficient. The British army had been increased to ten thousand men, and it was supported by the ships in Charlestown harbor. Colonel Prescott was sent to entrench Bunker Hill. The ships opened fire upon his entrenchments, but he and his men continued building their redoubt and breastworks. The British now came over from Boston to take them by assault, but the fire of the colonists was too hot and steady. Three times the veterans

*June 17.* advanced before they took the hill. The Americans retired in a body, but General Warren was among the slain. The Americans had proved their valor and their steadiness under attack from British regulars, and the King of England had a sample of colonial meekness.

§ 751. But Congress had met in May, and this time Colonel Washington had

attended its sessions in uniform. Hitherto he had counselled peace and moderation, but now he saw that war was inevitable, and that the time to organize an army had arrived. Upon the motion of John Adams, he was made commander-in-chief of the continental army. Ward, Lee, Schuyler, and Putman were made major-generals, and ten brigadiers were appointed, among them, Gates and Greene. Nearly all these



INDEPENDENCE HALL.

officers had served in the French and Indian campaigns, and many of the colonists had also seen hard service.

Congress, at the same time, established a post-office department, and issued bills of credit. In a word, it practically severed the cord that bound the colonies to Great Britain.

The choice of Washington was an inspiration. Even those who knew him best, like Patrick Henry, had little conception of his greatness. His grave courtesy, his si-

lence, and his simplicity of manner, were broken occasionally by outbreaks of startling energy. Few so patient as he, and few so prompt; defeat could not depress him, nor victory dazzle his judgment. He could endure disaffection and treachery, misunderstanding, and even contempt, for the sake of his country. He had but one personal longing, to return to his own fireside, the acknowledged deliverer of his fellow countrymen; and in the gloomiest hour of the desperate struggle, his calmness, his clear brain, his restless industry, his singleness of purpose, kept him and kept his cause alive.



DEATH OF GENERAL MONTGOMERY. ( *Benjamin West.* )

§ 752. Washington went at once to Boston, and took charge of the militia there collected. There were sixteen thousand of them when he arrived, but lack of food and lack of arms and ammunition, soon discouraged them, and they dwindled down to ten thousand, with forty-five rounds of ammunition to a man. John Adams and other impatient patriots clamored for action, but Washington had no powder, a trifle of which his impetuous critics did not take account. Yet by his skill and quiet daring, he

compelled the British to withdraw to New York, and to concentrate all their forces. British veterans and German mercenaries, under General Howe. Meanwhile Montgomery had taken Montreal, and then uniting with a force commanded by Benedict Arnold, the two had attacked Quebec. But Montgomery was killed,



**Dec. 31, 1775.** Arnold was severely wounded, and the Americans were finally compelled to retire.

## 2. THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE (1776-1783).

§ 753. And yet there was a party in the colonies opposed to a Declaration of Independence. Some because they were opposed to resistance, loyal subjects of his majesty, to whom the king was a sacred person, and resistance to Parliament a crime; some because they had no faith in the success of the colonists, and feared the consequences of royal wrath; and some because they still hoped that the King would become sane, and the Parliament grow wise. But to all clear-minded and patriotic Americans, the time had come to declare independence and to appeal to foreign powers for help. Virginia was again the leader. Patrick Henry had led off in 1765 with the "Stamp Act Resolves." Richard Henry Lee now moved that the colonies declare themselves free

and independent. The Declaration of Independence was drafted by Thomas Jefferson, amended by Franklin and Adams, and solemnly adopted by a vote of the whole thirteen States, on July 4,

**Aug. 2, 1776.** 1776. It was signed by all the members of the Continental Congress August 2, 1776.

SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.



"We the representatives of the United States of America," such are the solemn words, "in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states."

§ 754. Washington found himself on Long Island, and surrounded

by loyalists. His army was weakened by withdrawal, and soon defeated by General

Aug. 27, 1776. Howe, whose army outnumbered it, three to one. He retired north-

ward, but his troops deserted by companies, and he was compelled to retreat with the wretched remnant through New Jersey to Pennsylvania. Sir William Howe, thinking the war practically over, issued a proclamation, offering pardon to all who would return to their allegiance within sixty days. Congress fled to Baltimore, and the frightened people clamored for peace.

But the great commander, with his feeble force, had planned a daring move. On

Dec. 25, 1776. Christmas night he crossed the Delaware at Trenton (his barefooted men stepping upon blocks of floating ice), and captured a body of Hessians stationed on the Jersey side of the river. A few days later, Lord Cornwallis bore down



BUTTS, BROS., ENGRS., PHILA.

HOUSE IN WHICH THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE WAS WRITTEN.

*John Penn John Hancock John Mott  
Wm. Paine  
Sam'l Adams  
Stephen Hopkins  
Charles Carroll of Carroll  
Thomas Mifflin  
Roger Sherman  
Sam'l Adams  
Gro. Taylor  
Josiah Bartlett  
Benjamin Franklin  
Wm. Williams  
Rich. Stockton  
John Morison  
Oliver Wolcott  
Geo. Ross  
The Hon. Samuel Chase  
George Wythe  
Matthew Thornton  
Fran. Lewis  
Thos. Jefferson  
Benjamin Harrison  
Lewis Morris  
Mra. Clark  
Casar Rodney  
Arthur Middleton  
Thos. Hopkinson  
Geo. Walton  
Courtney B. Braxton  
James Wilson  
Richard Henry Lee  
Benjamin Rush  
John Adams  
Robt. Morris  
Simon Hall  
Francis Pickens  
Butler  
Francis Lightfoot Lee  
William Ellery  
Ruthledge  
J. Smith*

SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.



upon him with a much stronger force. Slipping away from their burning watch-fires, Washington and his men hurried to the rear of the British, and attacked three regiments at Princeton, driving them from the town. Howe, thinking it prudent to keep out of the way of an enemy so active and so ingenious, withdrew to New York. Washington then encamped in the New Jersey Highlands, and tried to organize his men into the semblance of an army. In the Spring of 1777, Howe maneuvered around him, hoping to force a fight. But as Washington would not leave his strong position, Howe embarked his army and carried it to Philadelphia. The Americans hurried southward to intercept him. Howe had landed his men on the Chesapeake shore, and was marching northward. Washington met him at Brandywine creek, southwest of Philadelphia. Here the Americans were forced to retreat, and Howe entered, as conqueror.

*Sept. 1777.* the city where the Declaration had been proclaimed. But the bulk of the British army was stationed at Germantown, six miles off. Washington pounced



WASHINGTON PREPARING TO CROSS THE DELAWARE.

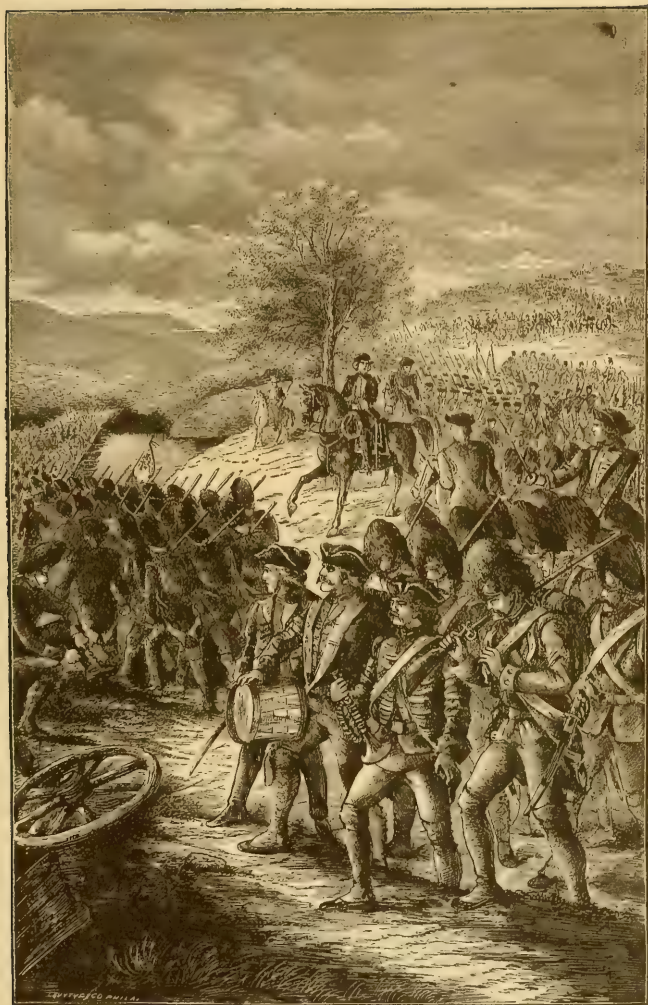
down upon them; but his troops fell into disorder, through a failure of his generals to carry

*Oct. 3-4, 1777.* out his plans. Nevertheless he succeeded in saving every piece of artillery, and in getting away his men. The accounts of the battle impressed the great generals of Europe with a sense of Washington's genius. The plan of the battle was acknowledged to be faultless. Howe too was astonished, and

ordered Sir Henry Clinton to send him a reinforcement of "full six thousand men." Count Donop, with twelve hundred Hessians, was sent to capture the fort at Red Bank on the Jersey shore, but they were repulsed with great slaughter. The British fleet reached the city of Philadelphia with difficulty, and only after heavy losses in ships and in men.

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§ 755. Meanwhile great events were happening in the north. The British general, Burgoyne, had marched with an army of ten thousand men from Canada to the Hudson, with the intention of cutting off New Eng'land from the other colonies. He had the Indians to help him, and but a feeble army to oppose him. Schuyler was at Fort Edward: St. Clair was at Ticonderoga, and the news of Indian outrages brought



BURGOYNE'S ARMY MARCHING TO SARATOGA. (pp. 845.)

the militia of New England in great numbers to the field. Schuyler was superseded by General Gates; but, fortunately for America, this incompetent commander was supported by Arnold, Morgan, Lincoln, and other able soldiers. As Burgoyne proceeded southward, he unfolded two wings, the one sweeping Vermont, and the other the Mohawk Valley. The left wing encountered Stark at Bennington, and was utterly destroyed. The right was met by Arnold at Fort Schuyler, and forced back upon the main army, at Saratoga. Lincoln had moved to Burgoyne's rear and cut off his communications with Canada. Sir Henry Clinton had promised to march up from the south, but he performed his promise too tardily to help the British forces. Defeated

Oct. 16, 1777. at Bemis Heights, on September 19, and at Stillwater, October 7,

Burgoyne had been driven to Saratoga, and was being starved into defeat, and on October 16, 1777, he surrendered his army of five thousand six hundred and forty-two men to the American commander. The entire loss of the British in this ruinous campaign was about ten thousand men. But the campaign was decisive as well as ruinous.

§ 756. For when the news of Saratoga and of Germantown arrived at Paris, the excitement was profound. Vergennes, the French minister, recognized the genius of Washington. The success of the Americans at Saratoga spoke volumes for the soldiers of the colonies. Lafayette, the distinguished young nobleman, who had joined Wash-



LAFAYETTE.



GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE.



ington the year before, was suddenly justified in the eyes of his friends, and Dr. Franklin, who had been sent by Congress to negotiate a treaty with the French king, was then notified that France would acknowledge the independence of the United

*Feb. 6, 1778.* States of America, and would also enter into a conditional alliance with them.

In a lucid interval, the British Parliament now passed two statutes, declaring that no tax should hereafter be imposed by Parliament upon the colonies, and appointing commissioners to seek a reconciliation. These statutes are the eternal vindication of the action of the colonists, seeing that they formally recognize the principle for which the Americans contended.

But Congress and the American people, encouraged by this great success, were determined upon independence, and death in removing Chatham, took away the only man in England who might have averted further conflict.

In 1778 France and Spain sent a fleet of sixty ships to ride the English channel, and to threaten the English coast. And not long afterward, the Dutch fleet entered the struggle for supremacy at sea. England, however, was not to be beaten on her native element; and, in spite of her reverses, she nearly succeeded in overcoming the Americans. For the colonists were destitute of money; the troops were half-clad and half-starved; the people were suffering from famine and commercial ruin; the camp at Valley Forge was the scene of disease and privation, of heroic efforts to endure, more wonderful than any efforts to achieve.



*Bened. Arnold*

§ 757. Steuben, it is true, had succeeded in converting this raw material of patriotic courage into a disciplined army. But Washington was sorely tried by the Conway Cabal, a conspiracy of certain army officers and members of Congress to make Horatio Gates commander-in-chief of the continental forces. The treason of Charles

*June 28, 1778.* Lee lost for him the battle of Monmouth, which ought to have resulted in a splendid victory, while Indian massacres in Pennsylvania and New York had carried dread into every frontier hamlet. Yet the British, fearing the arrival of a French fleet, left Philadelphia for New York, and they captured Stony Point on the Hudson,

thus interrupting communications between New England and the Middle States. Washington, on the other hand, left Valley Forge and returned to Morristown, New Jersey, extending his lines northward to West Point. He watched the British with

*July 15, 1779.* sleepless vigilance, and sent "Mad Anthony" Wayne to recover Stony

*Sept. 22, 1780.* Point, which he accomplished gloriously. But on September 22, 1780, Washington was struck the severest blow received by him in his trying career, for on



*Your most obed<sup>t</sup>  
humb<sup>t</sup> servant  
J. André.*

that day his trusted friend, General Benedict Arnold, became a traitor. West Point was saved and Major André, who negotiated with Arnold, was captured and hanged. But Arnold escaped, to reappear later in attacks upon Richmond, Virginia, and upon New London, Connecticut.

*1800.* cut, and to die dishonored and miserable in London, a year after the death of his betrayed and once beloved commander.

§ 758. Meanwhile, the only piece of good news that cheered the hearts of the anxious people came from the sea, where Captain Paul Jones had compelled British

*Sept. 23, 1779.* seamen to strike the British flag. The French fleet, from which so much had been expected, failed to take Savannah, which had been occupied by British troops in the winter of 1778. Georgia was practically conquered, and early in 1780, Charleston, South Carolina, was in the hands of Lord Cornwallis, General Lincoln having surrendered it after a brave resistance;

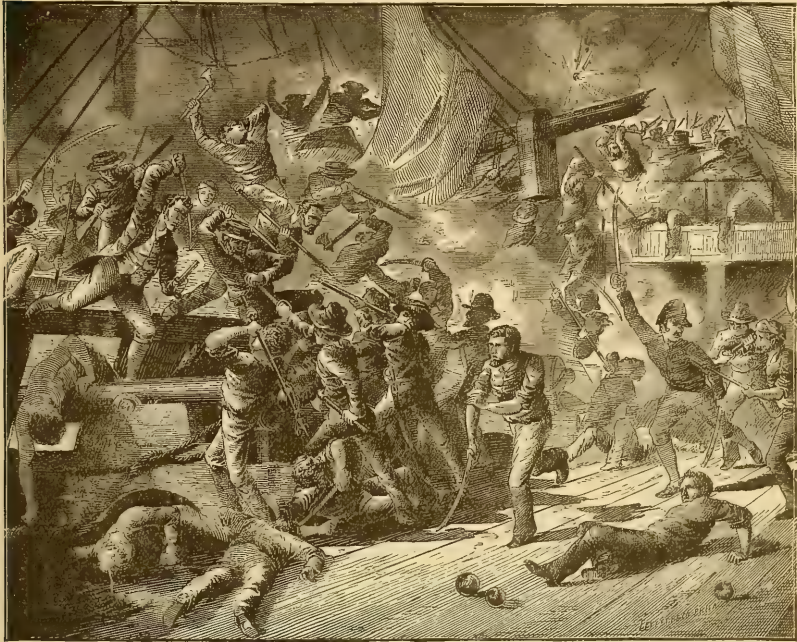
lasting forty-two days. With it he surrendered all his army, and South Carolina was easily subdued, many of the inhabitants seeking "protections" from Lord Cornwallis. Yet Marion and Sumter gave the British great annoyance by their partisan warfare,

*Oct. 2, 1780.* and one band of backwoodsmen, under Shelby and Sevier, defeated

Ferguson with his thousand Tories at King's Mountain. Several of Ferguson's men were hanged as traitors by the angry patriots.

The incompetent Gates had been appointed by Congress to oppose Cornwallis. Flushed with the recollections of Saratoga, but forgetting that he had no subordinates

*Aug. 10, 1780.* like those who won for him the victories of the North, he rushed headlong to the battle of Camden, where three-fourths of his army perished. General Nathaniel Greene was now sent with a little army of veterans to save, if possible, the South. Greene led his troops with consummate skill. He sent Morgan to Cowpens,



CAPTAIN PAUL JONES, ON THE BONHOMME RICHARD, CAPTURES THE SERAPIS.

*Jan. 12, 1781.* where he defeated Tarleton and his Tories, returning to Greene before Cornwallis could overtake the nimble Americans. Cornwallis pushed to the north; Greene retreated before him. Suddenly he halted, and then returned to Guilford

*March 15, 1781.* Court House, and offered battle. The British held the field, but Greene had all the advantage of the fight. Cornwallis was obliged to move toward the sea-coast. Greene pushed after him, then swiftly changing his course, marched back to South Carolina and attacked Lord Rawdon. Again he was defeated, but his presence and his fighting courage stirred up the partisans. The inhabitants, tired of the British occupation, rose to arms, and South Carolina was soon recovered to the



Americans. The conflict became terribly bitter, the British shooting as deserters all found in arms, who had accepted their "protections."

§ 759. But the war was nearing its close. Cornwallis was about to enter the famous "mouse-trap." Washington had longed for the chance to strike a final blow. His troops had rebelled at Morristown; and he had, with difficulty, held his little army together, hoping to combine with the French force for an attack upon the British at New York. But divining the plan of Cornwallis, which was to join Phillips and Arnold in Virginia, he prepared to crush him by an unexpected and powerful blow. Lafayette was sent to Virginia, in command of a small force, to hold Cornwallis in check. The French fleet, under Count de Grasse, was

induced to co-operate. Lafayette compelled the British to entrench themselves at Yorktown. Here they were blockaded by the French fleet. They had entered the



NATHANIEL GREENE.

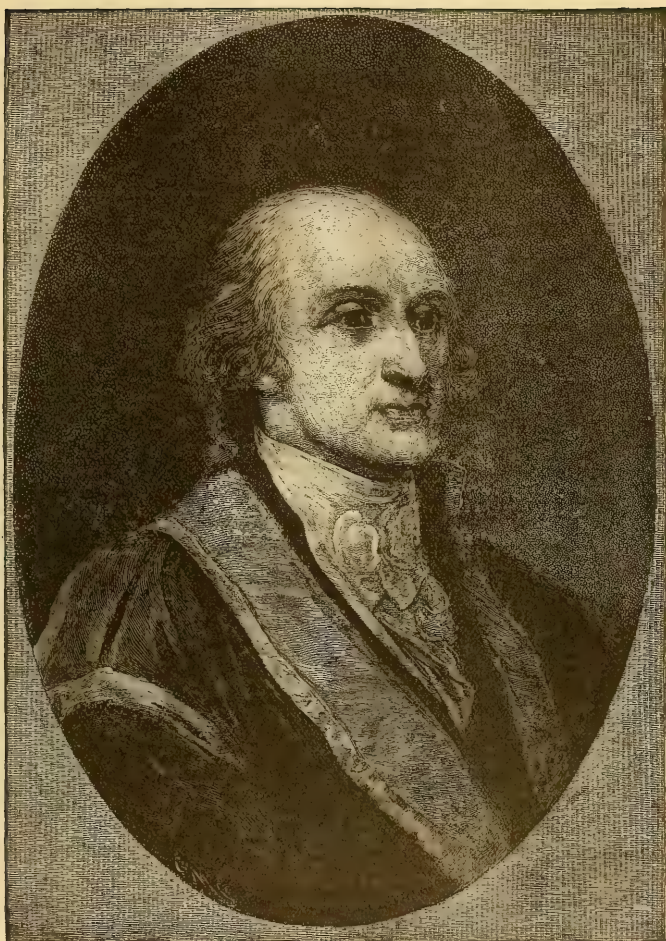


GENERAL FRANCIS MARION.

"mouse-trap." Washington deluded Clinton into the belief that he meant to attack them at New York. "If you cannot deceive your own men," said the American general, "you cannot deceive the enemy;" so his own soldiers believed that they were going to the Hudson. Suddenly they were marched to the Chesapeake Bay, and carried thence to Yorktown. The combined French and American armies were sixteen thousand strong. Cornwallis was soon in sore straits; he tried a sally, but made things worse. Clinton failed to help him,

*Oct. 19, 1781.* and there was nothing left but to surrender. The war was practically over. The British had lost a second army, and a further prosecution of the war meant even greater disaster.

Greene meanwhile had fought an-



JOHN JAY.

(pp. 851.)

other "defeat" in South Carolina, by which he was able to confine the British to Charleston and the district between the Cooper and the Ashley rivers. After six years of desperate struggle, the British held only Charleston and New York. When the news reached England, Lord North exclaimed, "It is all over!" and resigned. But for the victories of Admiral Rodney over the Spanish fleet, off Cape Vincent, and over the French fleet at the West Indies, England would have lost India and Gibraltar. Like Athens, she was saved by her "wooden walls."

§ 760. But though peace was conquered, a great diplomatic struggle yet remained. France and Spain, the allies of the United States, were by no means eager to create a colossal republic, and to endow it with the Valley of the Mississippi. Aranda, the Spaniard, and Vergennes, the Frenchman, both contended that the territory north of the Ohio should be given to England, and the vast region to the south should be made



WASHINGTON ON THE HUDSON.

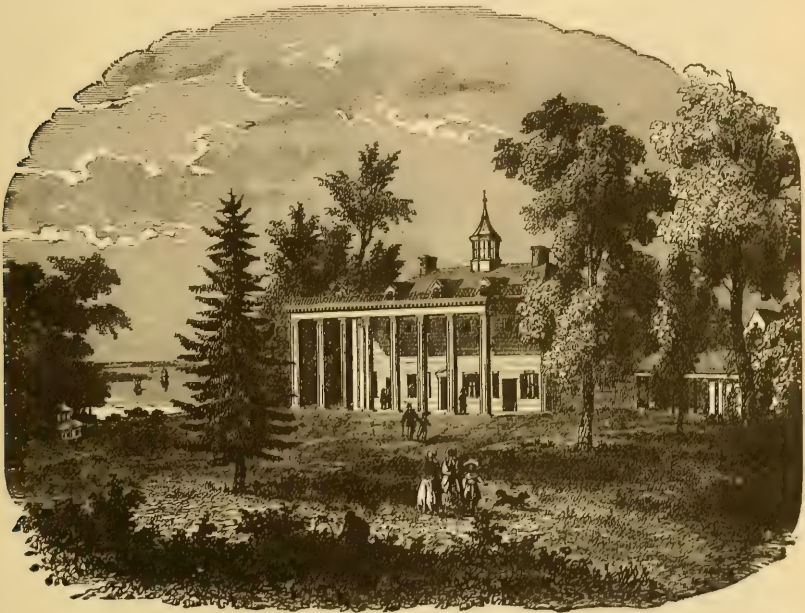
an Indian territory, under the protection of Spain and the United States. This would dwarf the republic, and give all but a strip of the Atlantic coast to England and Spain. Then, too, the Americans were to be excluded from the Newfoundland fisheries.

Fortunately for America, Shelburne had succeeded Lord North. The English, having determined to acknowledge the independence of the colonies, did not seek to mutilate their future. Through the influence and shrewdness of John Jay, who, together with Franklin and Adams, conducted the negotiations, a separate treaty with England was agreed upon, which was not concluded until the consent of France had been obtained; but about the details of which the French minister was not consulted. This treaty carried the boundaries of the United States to the Mississippi river, permitted the Americans to catch fish in Canadian waters, but not to dry them on the Newfoundland coast, required the payment of all outstanding private debts, and pro-



ected the loyalists from further prosecution and confiscation. Great Britain subsequently indemnified her loyal subjects in the most creditable manner.

§ 761. This treaty was signed September 3, 1783. During the two years and more *Sept. 3, 1783.* which elapsed between the signing of the treaty and the surrender of Cornwallis, guerrilla warfare had been kept up in South Carolina, and on the frontier of New York, and the Indians had been busy with tomahawk and knife. But the regular armies had quietly awaited peace. Washington established his headquarters at Newburg on the Hudson; Rochambeau, with the French troops, joined him in September, 1781. In December of the same year the latter returned to France. But the danger over, the long suffering officers and soldiers began to clamor for their well-



WASHINGTON'S HOME AT MOUNT VERNON.

earned pay. It required all the influence and eloquence of Washington "to arrest the feet that stood wavering on a precipice." But he did it grandly, and the officers of the American army "rejected with disdain the infamous proposals contained in a late anonymous address." This address had suggested "an appeal to the fears of the government." But on June 21, 1783, two months after this affair at Newburg, a company of Pennsylvania soldiers drove Congress from Philadelphia to Princeton, disgracing the nation, and making the army exceedingly unpopular. Indeed a widespread distrust of the soldiers prevailed. Colonel Nicola had urged Washington to make himself dictator. The order of the Cincinnati looked to suspicious minds like the founding of a

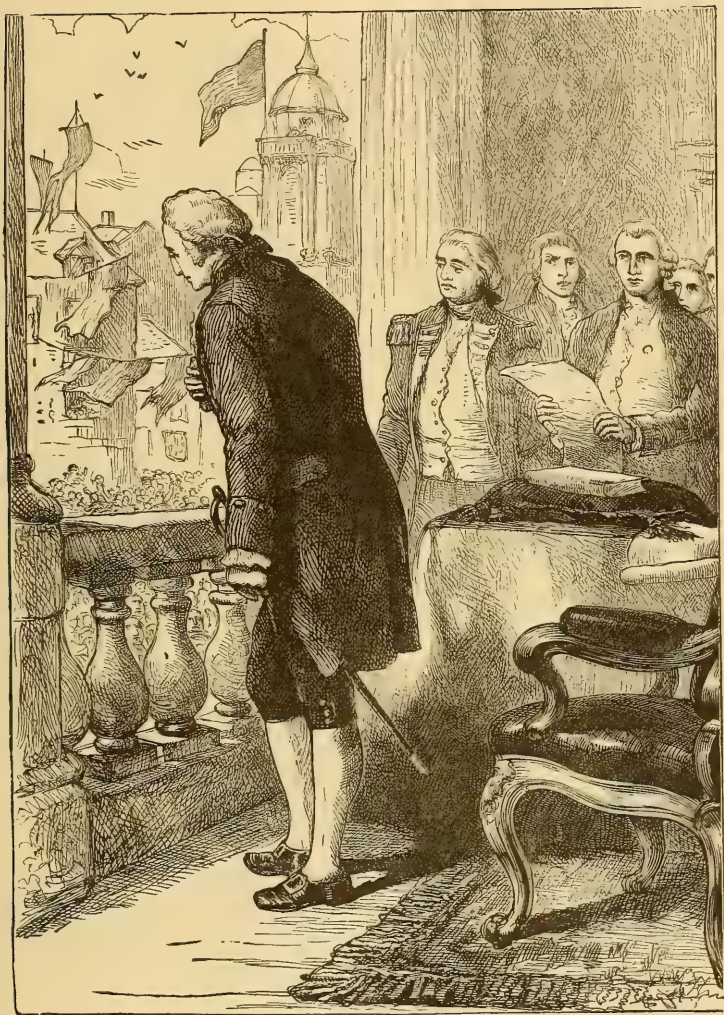
military aristocracy. And then to pay the promised arrears to officers and soldiers, meant high taxes to an impoverished people. Congress had no money; French subsidies had ceased; the skill and generosity of Robert Morris could work no more financial miracles; paper money had run its course to utter worthlessness. Meanwhile, the one man who was equal to these troublous times, was going home to his simple mode of life. At Fraunces' tavern, near South Ferry, in New York, he took leave of his devoted officers. At Philadelphia he filed his accounts. He had spent out of his private fortune, \$64,315. He had received and would accept no pay. In eight years, he had seen his home but once. Threatened with consumption from his early youth, he had shunned no dangers of camp or field. But now journeying to Annapolis, he asked of the Congress there in session, to be allowed to return to private life.

But before resigning, Washington had addressed a circular letter to the governors of the several States. In this he urged a stronger union, the payment of the public debt to the last penny, a uniformly organized militia, and a sacrifice of local and sectional prejudices. He had saved the cause of independence; he was now to triumph in a greater task, the formation of a more perfect union.

### 3. THE STRUGGLE FOR A MORE PERFECT UNION.

§ 762. From 1783 to 1787 the United States were drifting toward anarchy. New York attempted to oppress New Jersey and Connecticut; Connecticut and Pennsylvania quarreled over the valley of the Wyoming, and New Hampshire and New York over the Green Mountains. Congress was unable to protect American citizens; the Barbary pirates demanded money, but Congress could neither pay nor fight. People refused to pay their taxes. Morris, who had beggared himself for his country, ceased to serve a thankless people. Eleven of the thirteen States issued paper money, and clubs were formed to compel its circulation. The State of Franklin (now Tennessee) was in a condition of civil war. In Massachusetts and Rhode Island the quarrels about debt and paper money provoked an agitation so furious as to alarm the country. Rhode Island was spoken of as "Rogues' Island," and everywhere mentioned with contempt. Governor Bowdoin, of Massachusetts, was confronted by Daniel Shays and his barn-burning plunderers, who were determined to arrest all suits for debt. Yet when the leaders were tried and convicted of treason, they were all pardoned and set free by good-natured Governor Hancock. Many sagacious men began to talk quietly of a return to English rule; but Washington was working industriously for a "More Perfect Union." He corresponded continually with the statesmen of the country; he furthered every measure, looking to closer relations between the States. "You talk, my good sir," he wrote indignantly, "of employing *influence* to appease the tumults in Massachusetts. I know not where that influence is to be found; and if attainable, it would not be a proper remedy. Influence is not government. Let us have a government by which our lives, liberties, and properties will be secured, or let us know the worst at once."

The Continental Congress had not agreed upon Articles of Confederation without a struggle; even the emergencies of war did not bring all the States together until 1781. Congress was a revolutionary body until 1778, and until 1789 a very feeble one. It had no power to compel obedience; it operated upon States only, and not upon individuals; the vote required to pass an important measure, practically prohibiting legis-



WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION.

(pp. 855.)



lation; it could not regulate foreign commerce; and it could not remedy the defects of the existing Articles. But Maryland had refused to ratify the Articles for another reason, and thereby rendered vital service to the nation. "She would not ratify the Articles until she should receive some definite assurance that the Northwestern Territory should become the common property of the United States." Finally the several States yielded their claims in favor of the United States;—New York surrendering a shadowy right, but Virginia giving up a magnificent possession.

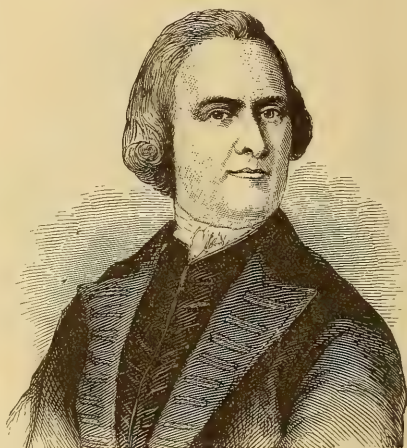
§ 763. Washington, foreseeing the coming greatness of the West, sought to bind both sections together by canals. He brought about the appointment of a joint commission of Virginia and Maryland, which met to consider the project in his own house. The consent of Pennsylvania became necessary. Washington suggested an agreement upon commerce and currency, as well as upon canals. Delaware was next invited. Then Madison moved in Congress a conference of all the thirteen states. His motion was adopted; the conference met at Annapolis, on September 11, 1786. Five States only were represented. The outlook was gloomy; the times were dark; and nothing came of the conference, but the address written by Hamilton and sent to all the States.

Nothing else; but this was much. For the critical winter of 1786 revealed the defects of the existing system, and the impending certainty of disruption if important changes were not made at once. Madison, acting under the inspiration of his great chief, prevailed upon the Virginia legislature to appoint delegates to the convention called for by Hamilton's address. Virginia responded, and named a delegation which included Washington. The people suddenly felt the coming of a great light.

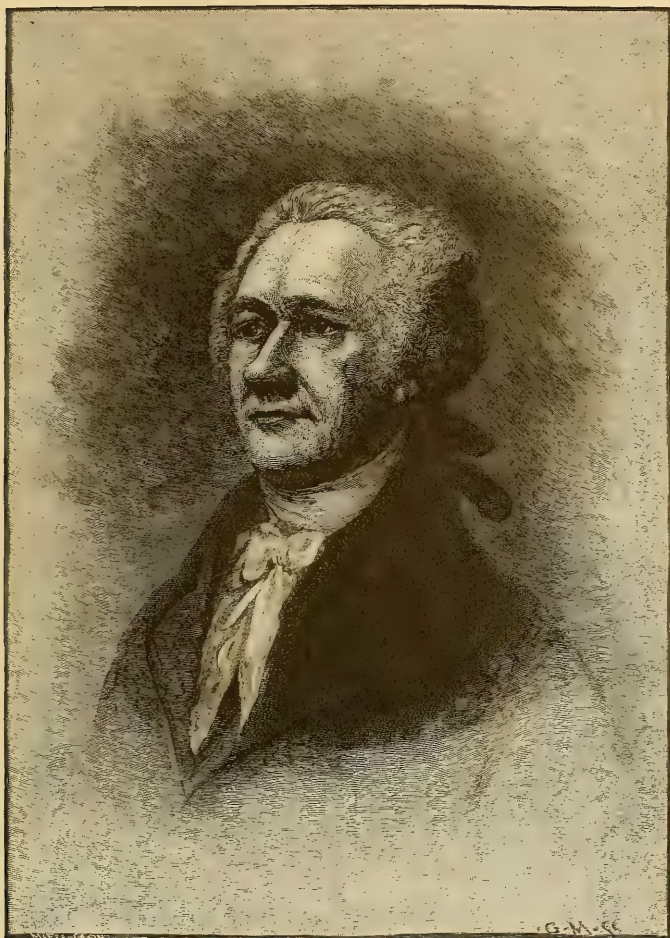
Massachusetts changed her mind, and her delegates in Congress now urged the formal adoption of the convention plan. All the States except Rhode Island followed the lead of Virginia, and sent delegates to meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787.

These delegates were in all fifty-five. Among them, Washington and Franklin, Hamilton and Madison, Jay and Wilson, Dickinson and Gouverneur Morris, Sherman, Randolph, Wythe, and Rutledge. Four months they sat with closed doors, and were often on the verge of dissolution. But the patient power that held the armies of the Revolution together during the gloomy days at Valley Forge and Morristown, was

**Sept. 17, 1787.** equal to this new and trying task. In September, the finished work was sent to the different States for their adoption. But it was greeted with violent opposition in all the States, and narrowly escaped rejection. The opposition in Virginia was led by Patrick Henry, in New York by George Clinton, and for a while Jefferson and Samuel Adams wavered. But over all the stormy agitation brooded



SAMUEL ADAMS.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

(pp. 857.)

the assuring presence of the man that the people trusted, and the More Perfect Union *June, 1788.* became, in 1788, an established fact of human history.

This union was a union of the people of the United States. They united more perfectly in the execution of the laws, creating a president for their due administration; they united more perfectly in the regulation of commerce, and in the raising of revenues, clothing Congress with authority to legislate on these important topics; they united more perfectly in the establishment of equal rights for all the citizens; they united finally in the creation of a supreme court, by which all conflicts between the States might be avoided. They did not unite to establish an absolute democracy; on the contrary, many devices of the constitution, like the electoral college, were avowedly intended to check popular feeling, and to restrict popular power. Some of its framers expected the constitution to last, at most, a century; others were even less hopeful. A few anticipated the glory of the future, but all of them "built wiser than they knew." For precisely the features that seemed most sagacious to their authors, have been discarded with the growth of years, while others, that were the result of circumstances merely, have proved the saving of the nation, and the promoters of her progress.

#### IV. THE MORE PERFECT UNION.

##### 1. THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF WASHINGTON AND ADAMS. 1789-1801.

§ 764.



ET many difficulties environed the birth of the new republic. Washington, unanimously elected to the presidency, confronted problems that taxed the abilities of a cabinet, never surpassed in quality. The "new roof" as it was called, excited suspicion and dislike; many distrusted it, many were determined upon a new convention and a new constitution. A large and powerful party

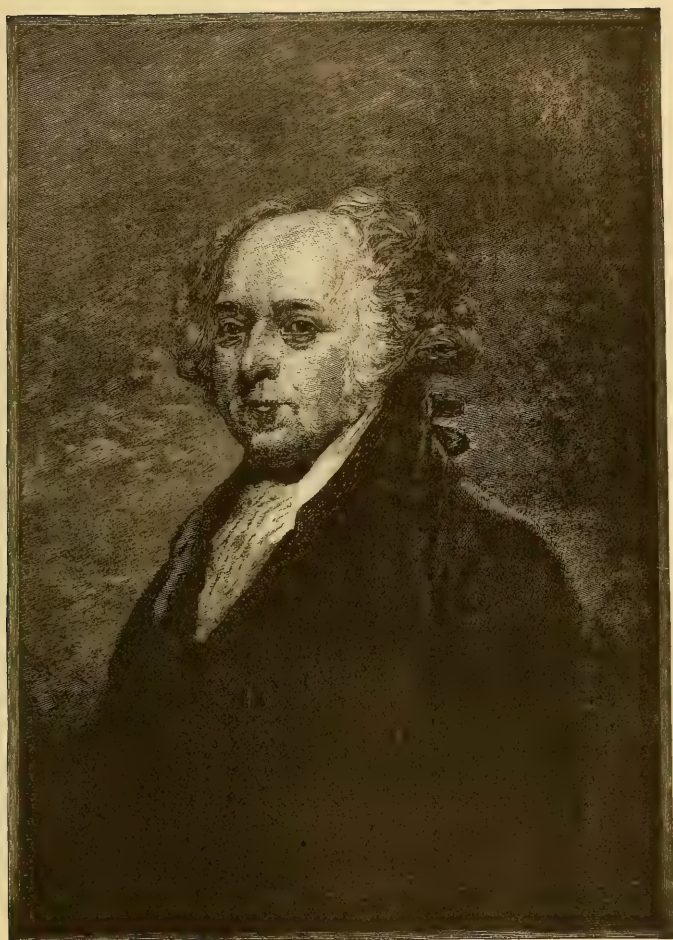
insisted upon amendments. Congress had been brought together with no little trouble, and was not easily persuaded to pass the measures absolutely necessary.

Alexander Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury, developed a financial policy that excited great opposition. This provided for the payment of \$80,000,000 due to France and to other countries, to the soldiers of the Revolutionary army, and to citizens of the several States. The Continental Congress owed much of it; the various States owed the rest. Hamilton provided for it all. A national bank and a mint were established at Philadelphia, and a simple convenient decimal system was adopted for the whole country. These measures of Hamilton led, however, to the

*July 8, 1792.* transfer of the seat of government to the Potomac, an act that powerfully affected the future of the republic. Only upon condition of this transfer could votes enough be procured to pass the pending bills.

§ 765. Jefferson, meanwhile, was busied with problems that would have taxed any statesman, but were unusually trying to him. One of these grew out of the treaty of 1783, which neither England nor America had observed very scrupulously.





JOHN ADAMS.

(pp. 859.)

The provisions, touching debts due to English citizens and touching the loyalists, were disregarded by the United States; the frontier forts were still held by the British. American ships were searched, and American seamen carried off at the command of the English naval officers, and war loomed up quite near. Jefferson had a cordial hatred for England, and yet he spoke for "peace with honor." The trouble however was not settled by him, but by Washington and Jay. A treaty was negotiated, and finally

**1795.** ratified in 1795. It provoked a fierce opposition in and out of Congress. The President was assailed with abuse and calumny, with caricature and suspicion. But he held firmly to his purpose, and the outcome justified his wisdom. He knew the danger of war and the unreliability of popular feeling, and that the men who clamored for the blood of Britain were not the men who would shed their own to procure it.

The other problem that vexed the Secretary of State, grew out of the startling events in France. Jefferson had imbibed French ideas, and loved the French people. He wished for their success in their struggles with European monarchs, and in this the whole country sympathized with him. Washington, always tranquil and sagacious, issued a proclamation of neutrality. Spain and England menaced the country; the Creek Indians were ready to spring upon the frontier settlements. And yet the people were mad with the fever of a fight for France, and a hatred for the foes of liberty.

Fortunately Citizen Genet, who had been sent to the United States to represent the French republic, or rather the "men of '93," was a mischievous dunce and nothing more. He formed Jacobin clubs; he organized military companies; he defied the President; he exasperated Hamilton; he provoked Jefferson; and was, at Washington's request, recalled. He had done some mischief. He had frightened John Adams into thinking that "ten thousand people in Philadelphia were threatening to drag Washington out of the house, and effect a revolution."<sup>\*</sup>

He widened too the breach between Jefferson and Hamilton, and excited controversies, which left their worst traces in the Kentucky Resolutions of 1798.

§ 766. **Knox**, the minister of war, had chiefly to face the Indian problem. Washington divided the red men into two classes, the good and the bad, the friendly and the hostile. The former he protected by a wise and far-seeing policy. All subsequent trouble with the good Indians are traceable to a departure from his methods. To the bad Indians he showed no mercy. The tribes on the banks of the Ohio made life on

**1790.** the frontiers a terror by their incursions. As there was no regular army, militia must be employed. General Harmar was defeated by the savages; St. Clair

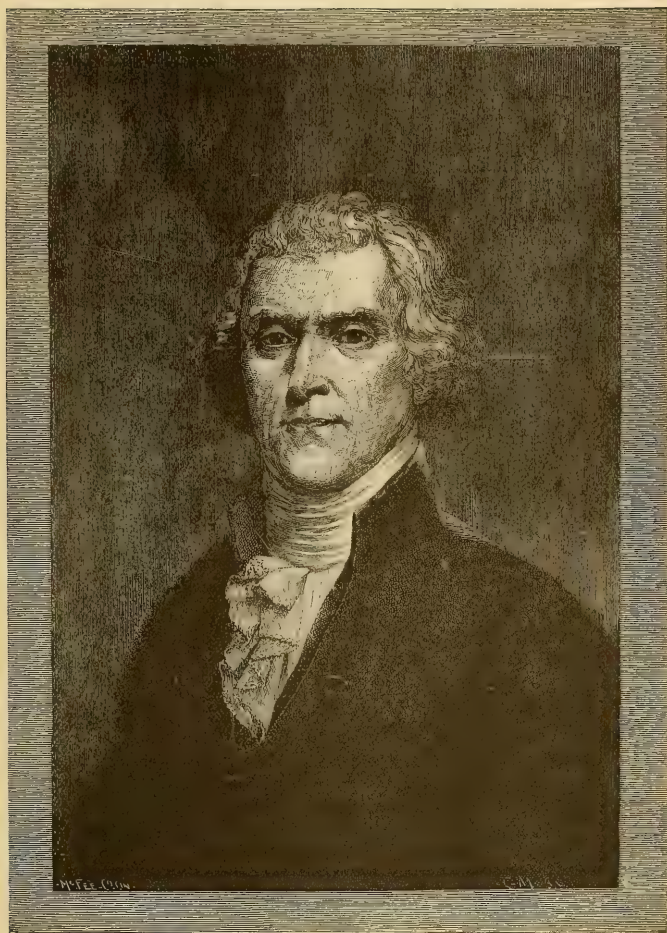
**1791.** was surprised and put to flight. "Mad Anthony" Wayne then invaded their country at the head of three thousand men, utterly defeating them, and

**1794.** threatening to rise from the grave to hunt them down if, after his death, they attacked the whites again.

During the second administration of Washington, the Western counties of Penn-

**1794.** sylvania rebelled against the excise laws. The rude settlers could see no justice in the tax upon the products of their stills. They drove out the revenue officers, and defied the government, seven thousand insurgents combining to resist the execution of the laws. The President thereupon called out the militia of four States,

\* The population of Philadelphia was then about forty-five thousand men, women, and children!



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

(pp. 861.)



and the insurrection was put down at once, and without bloodshed. The leaders were convicted of treason, but soon pardoned. For Washington, though prompt, was patient, never cruel, and never afraid to show mercy. In 1795 he made a treaty with

1795.

Spain, in which he obtained for the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi, and the privilege of landing at New Orleans. In 1796 he declined a re-election. His second administration had been stormy and often unpopular; he had been assailed in pamphlets and in caricatures; accused of theft and treachery, of aspirations for a crown, of cowardice and arrogance. There was a brief period, in which he found it almost impossible to get a secretary of state, and when he seemed to have lost not only fame, but the affection of the people. But in 1796 it was plain enough that the clamor came from the noisy, and not from the intelligent; that the people desired him to remain where he might shelter them with his courageous wisdom, and guide them to further progress. But he longed for the pleasures of his quiet home, and he deemed it best for the future of the country, that he should abandon, voluntarily and in the strength of his manhood, the responsibility that he had neither sought nor shunned. So he set the example that, through the simple force of his character, has become the unwritten law of the land. The president of the United States serves two terms only.

§ 767. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson were the candidates for the succession. Adams, a hot Federalist, was chosen by a small majority, but soon quarreled with Hamilton, the acknowledged leader of his party. France was again the cause of trouble. The Convention and the Reign of Terror had been succeeded by the Directory. And the Directory was treating the United States with contemptuous insolence, rejecting their ambassadors and capturing their vessels upon the slightest pretext. Pinckney, Marshall, and Gerry were sent to the French republic to seek for reconciliation. They were told unofficially that by heavy bribes to the members of the Directory and a heavy loan to the Republic, the difficulties could be arranged. To which America responded "millions for defence but not one cent for tribute." The

1798-1799.

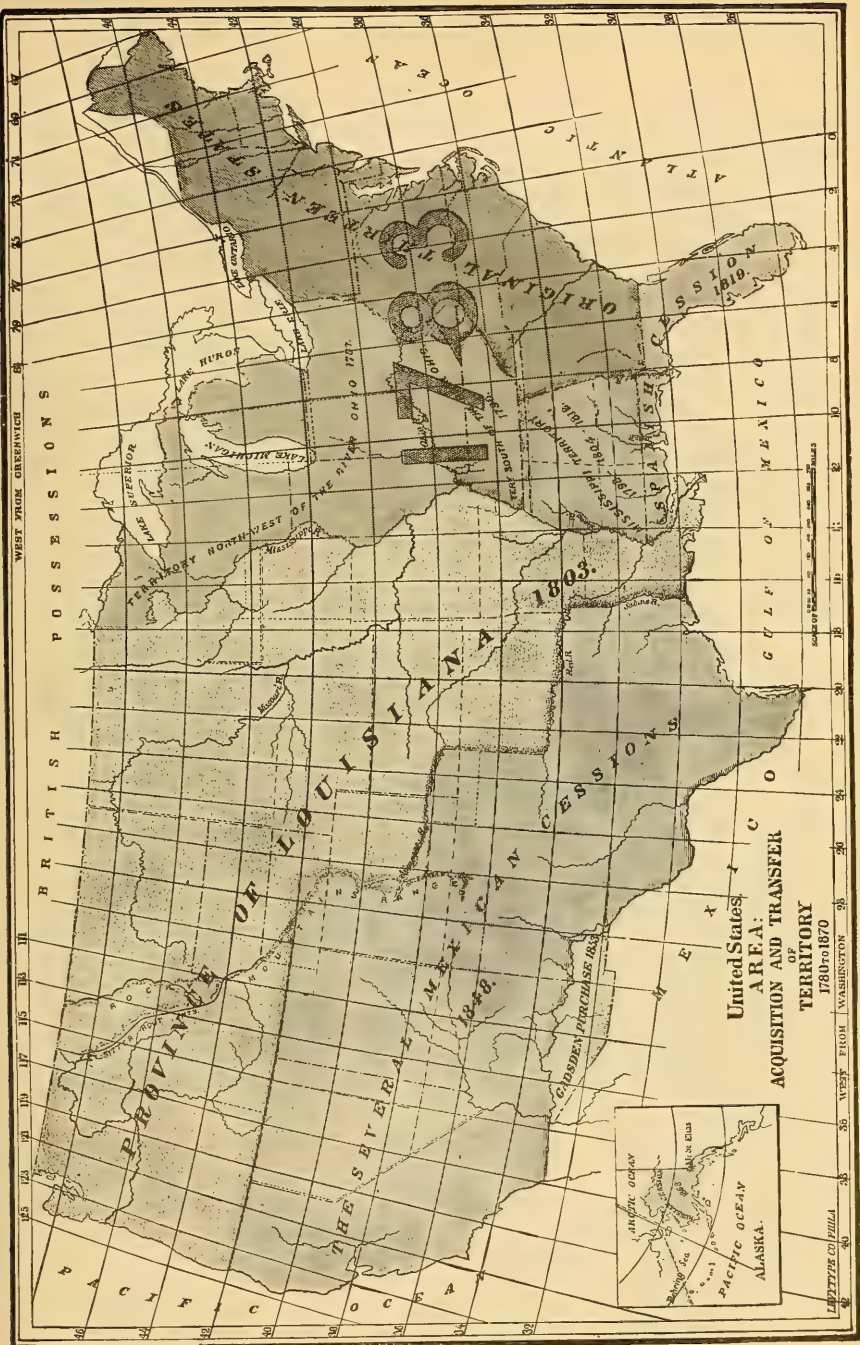
navy was increased, arms and ammunition were purchased, an army was recruited, Washington was called from his retirement, letters of marque and reprisal were issued, and the aspect threatened war. The alien and sedition acts were passed in the midst of this excitement, but soon became unpopular. The people, jealous of personal liberty and the freedom of the press, condemned, in calmer moments, statutes so dangerous to both.

The letters of marque and reprisal soon bore fruit. Captain Truxton of the frigate *Constellation* captured the French frigate *L'Insurgente*, while the privateers captured and brought into port fifty or more armed vessels of the French. But President Adams suddenly determined to have peace; he sent a new minister to France, who found Napoleon Bonaparte in power. The young general was too sagacious not to see the value of America's friendship, and war was easily averted.

But this act of Adams disgusted his party, and especially Hamilton, who desired war. After a contest of virulent abuse, Jefferson and Burr received each seventy-three.

1800.

and Adams and Pinckney each sixty-five electoral votes. A defect of the Federal constitution was suddenly disclosed. Who was president? The people had meant to have Jefferson. But the Federalists insisted upon having Burr. This



they could (so they thought) accomplish, as the constitution required the House of Representatives to chose, when no candidate received a majority of all the votes.

The House balloted thirty-six times; at last some of the Federalists gave way, and Jefferson was chosen. To prevent the recurrence of such a difficulty, the constitution was amended and each elector now votes separately for president and vice-president.

## 2. THE PERIOD OF DEMOCRATIC RULE. 1801-1849.

§ 768. Parties were already clearly defined. During the administration of Washington, they had existed in a half-formed state. But the anti-Federalists gradually disappeared. The More Perfect Union succeeded so splendidly under its great promoter and its first president, that few ventured to continue their attacks. But early in the nineties, Jefferson began the creation of the Democratic or Republican party. He had no sympathy with Hamilton, personally or politically. He believed him bent upon a monarchy, upon the destruction of local liberty, and the creation of a government modelled after that of England. The alien and sedition laws excited him to bitter opposition, and he wrote the Kentucky resolutions in the fever of this excitement. But elected to the presidency, his conduct was happily not always consistent with his theories; and with him began the long period of democratic rule, broken only by the brief interval of the first Harrison administration.

### a. *Territorial Expansion and the Admission of New States.*

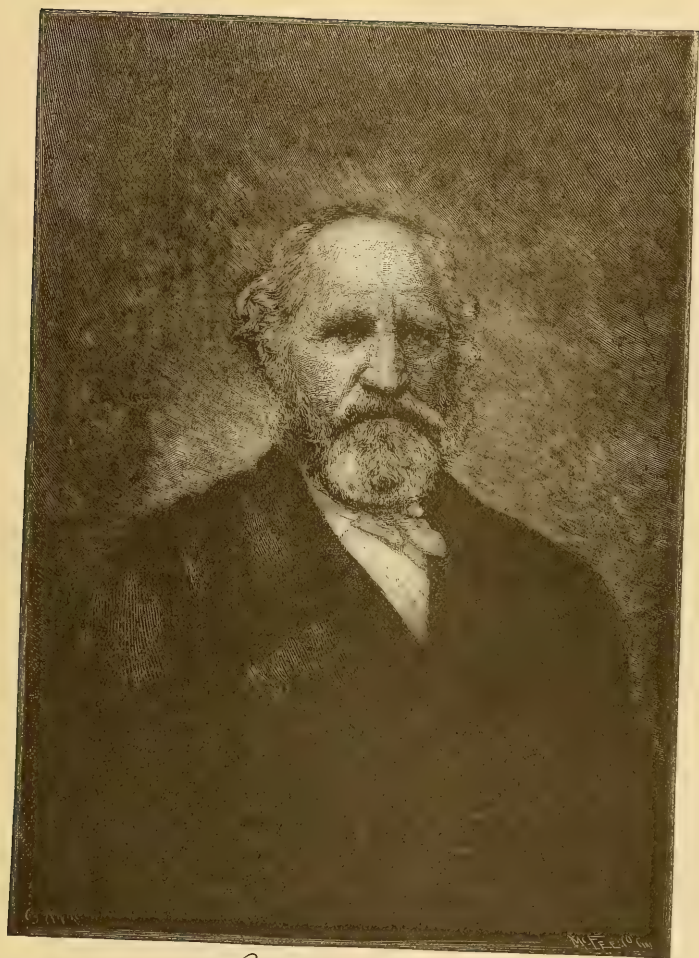
§ 769. The Union, although in possession of a vast domain, was dependent upon Spain for the navigation of the Mississippi, without which the West had no communication with the sea. Louisiana returned, quite unexpectedly, into the hands of France, in 1800. The English threatened to take it. Napoleon, the consul, was glad to sell, and Jefferson was eager to buy. For fifteen millions of dollars he bought all the

**1803.** territory between the Mississippi river and the Rocky mountains. His purchase included the present states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, with parts of several others. It doubled the area of the United States, kept both England and France out of the southwest, and separated Florida from the other possessions of Spain. Florida was a thorn in the side of Georgia; it had become a nest of pirates, runaway slaves, and wandering Indians (Seminoles). After futile attempts to clean it out, it was conquered by General Jack-

**1819.** son, in 1818, and the next year purchased from Spain for five million dol-  
**1845.** lars. No further acquisitions of territory were made, until 1845, when Texas sought admission into the Union. Austin, Houston, and other Americans had made the country independent of Mexico; and, in spite of opposition, it was annexed by Congress. Shortly after the election of President Polk, Oregon was acquired by discovery and exploration, though the title to it was disputed by Great Britain, and not confirmed until the treaty of 1846, which gave the Union, Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, in all about 250,000 square miles.

Boundary quarrels with Mexico soon provoked a war which led to a further extension of the national territory. California and New Mexico fell to the victors, upon the payment of \$15,000,000. Thus in half a century the area of the country was quadrupled, and the American flag carried westward to the Pacific ocean.





*Sam. Houston* (pp. 865.)

§ 770. But this rapidity of acquisition seems a trivial matter, when compared with the swift movements of emigrants, and the sudden development of the country. About the time of the Revolutionary war, settlers pushed into the southwest, creating the new states of Kentucky and Franklin (now called Tennessee). A movement of greater importance developed Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. The northwest ordinance of 1787 dedicated the territory of that section to perpetual freedom; a similar ordinance touching the southwest might have changed the course of American history. Kentucky, which was settled by Daniel Boone in 1769, was admitted to the Union in 1792, Tennessee in 1796. Ohio entered in 1802, Indiana in 1816, and Illinois in 1818. In 1848 the union of the eleven states had become a confederation of thirty, and the population of three millions had become thirty millions.

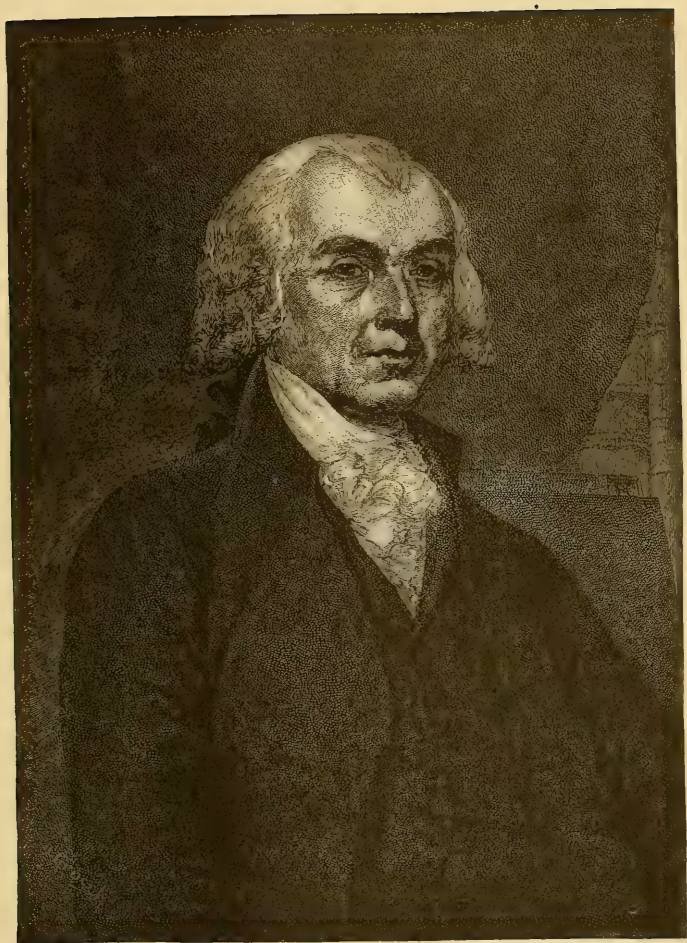
*b. Foreign Affairs. War with England. Difficulties with England and France. War with Mexico. Indian Wars.*

§ 771. Washington was scrupulously careful to avoid foreign complications; Adams, at a critical moment, averted war with France. Jefferson desired peace, and bore with patience many insults from the French and English. But he triumphed  
 1801. easily over the pirates of Tripoli and the north coast of Africa. These freebooters cared neither for man nor God, but Jefferson taught them to respect the American flag. Tripoli agreed, in 1805, no longer to molest the ships and sailors of the United States of America.

Far more serious were the difficulties growing out of the wars of Europe. England and France were seeking to destroy each other. Each forbade American ships to trade with the enemy, and the English seized American seamen and forced them to serve under the Union Jack. Jefferson rejected the treaty negotiated with England, by Pinckney and Monroe, in 1806, because it did not formally prohibit the impressment of seamen. Napoleon declared the British coasts in a state of blockade; England decreed that neutrals should not trade with France or her allies. Napoleon then added the decree of Milan to that of Berlin, confiscating any vessel that submitted to be searched by British captains. Jefferson, not to be outdone, and believing American products essential to European life and welfare, urged and succeeded in getting an embargo act,

1806-1807. closing American ports to every form of foreign trade. It did not ruin Europe; it nearly ruined America. Finally Congress modified the act, and limited its prohibitions to trade with France and England. Jefferson's successor, Madison, re-opened commerce with Great Britain, or thought to do so. But the British minister mistook his instructions, and the elated Americans fell into anger and despair. Napoleon next deceived the President, trying to involve him in trouble with Great Britain. The people of the United States, being exasperated, were ready to believe

1811. any evil of the English. When the Indians, under Tecumseh, rose against the settlers of the west, England was accused of furthering the plot. When a scamp named Henry brought a package of forged letters to President Madison, as evidence of England's villany, they were purchased for a good round sum, and believed to be genuine, by the credulous haters of perfidious Albion. A young democracy, under the lead of Henry Clay, demanded "sailors' rights and free trade" and began clamoring for war; and in 1811, active preparations for war were begun. These demonstrations failed, of course, to impress a ministry engaged in a desperate struggle

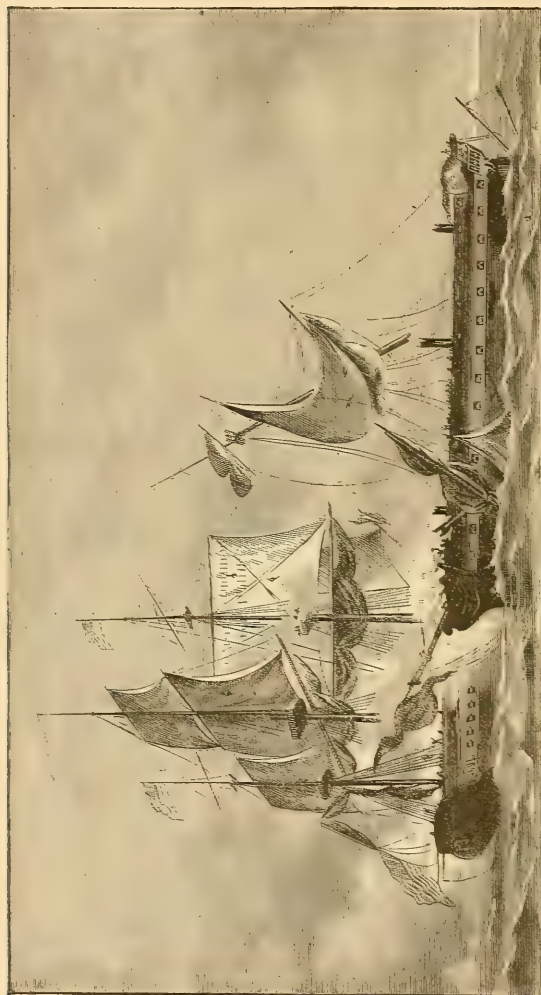


JAMES MADISON.

(pp. 867.)



with the mighty subverter of monarchies, Napoleon; and the next June, Congress, unable to obtain from England redress for the past, or pledges for the future, declared war against her.



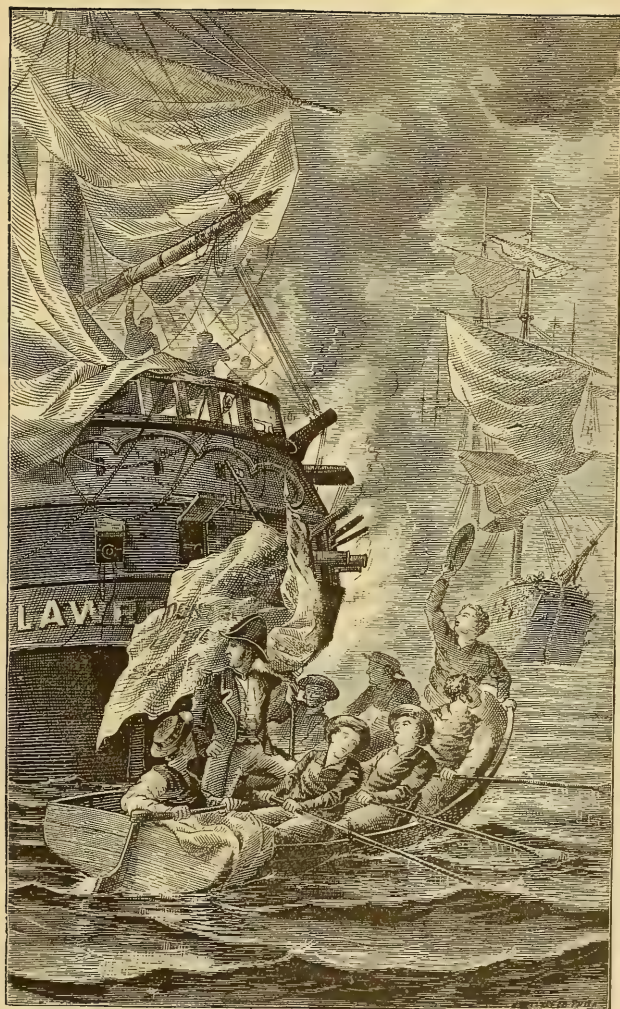
CAPTURE OF THE GUERRIERE BY THE CONSTITUTION.

§ 772. The privateers soon justified the expectations with which this war was begun: they nearly destroyed the merchant marine of Great Britain. The American navy was gloriously successful. The *Guerrière* was shattered by the frigate *Constitution*; the

1812. *Frolic* was captured by the *Wasp*; the *Macedonian* was next taken by Decatur's frigate, the *United States*; and the *Java* struck her flag to Captain Bainbridge, commanding the *Constitution*.

But on the land the year was one of great disappointment and disaster. General Hull marched into Canada; he was driven back to Detroit, where he was besieged and frightened into capitulation. General Van Rensselaer collected another army on the Niagara river. He sent over one thousand men to capture the Canadian village of Queens-

town. The militia however refused to support them, and they too were compelled to surrender. Six weeks afterward, General Smythe made a second attempt, which



PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE.

(pp. 869.)

failed absurdly, and compelled him to resign his command. Dearborn brought up the rear of incompetents. He commanded a large and well-appointed army, and was conspicuous for inactivity.

1813. The campaign of 1813 promised, at first, no great lustre to the American arms. Proctor, the English commander in Michigan, was obliged to return to Malden, but Ogdensburgh, New York, was taken by the British. A force of Americans, falling into an ambuscade at Beaver Dams, was compelled to surrender. But later in the year, the Americans recovered control of the Great Lakes. Chauncey first launched a fleet on Lake Ontario, and for a while held it in his control. Commodore Perry won a splendid naval victory on Lake Erie. "We have met the enemy and they are ours," was the laconic message in which he announced his mastery of the British and of the upper lakes. Harrison's army could now advance and compel the surrender of most of Proctor's men who had hastily evacuated Malden. But when he attempted a march upon Montreal, he encountered a British force that compelled him to abandon his undertaking.

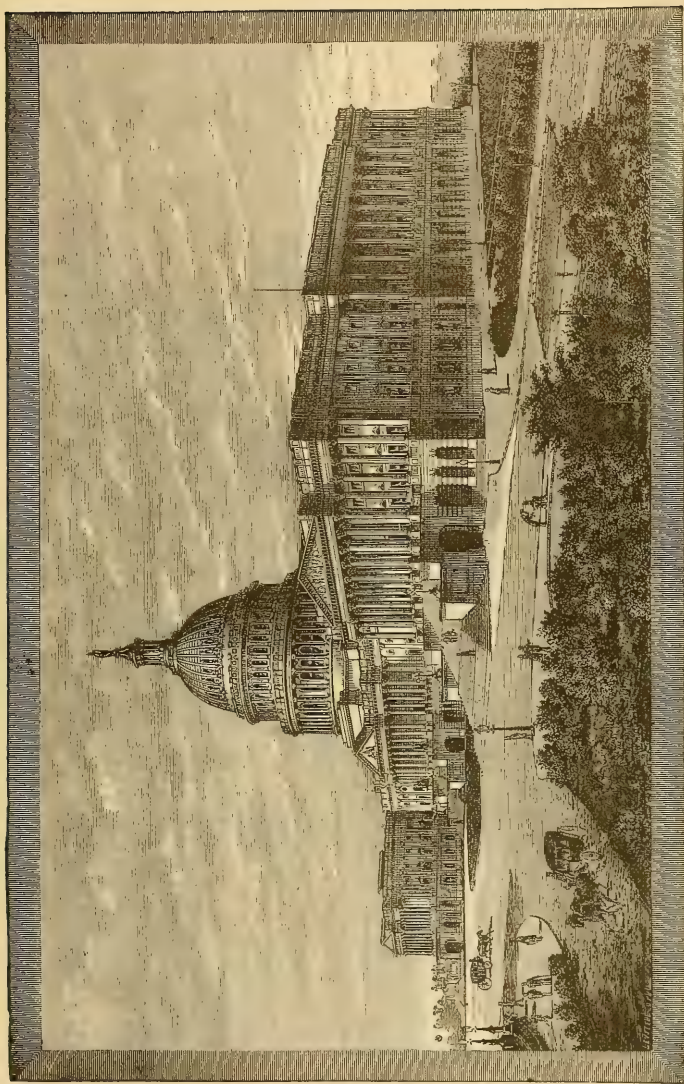
§ 773. While the Amer-

icans were thus wasting their strength to no purpose along the frontier, the entire Atlantic sea coast was blockaded by English squadrons. The large cities in the East began to tremble, and New England sullenly opposed the war. Suddenly Amer-



THE WASP BOARDING THE PROTECTOR.





CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

(pp. 87L.)

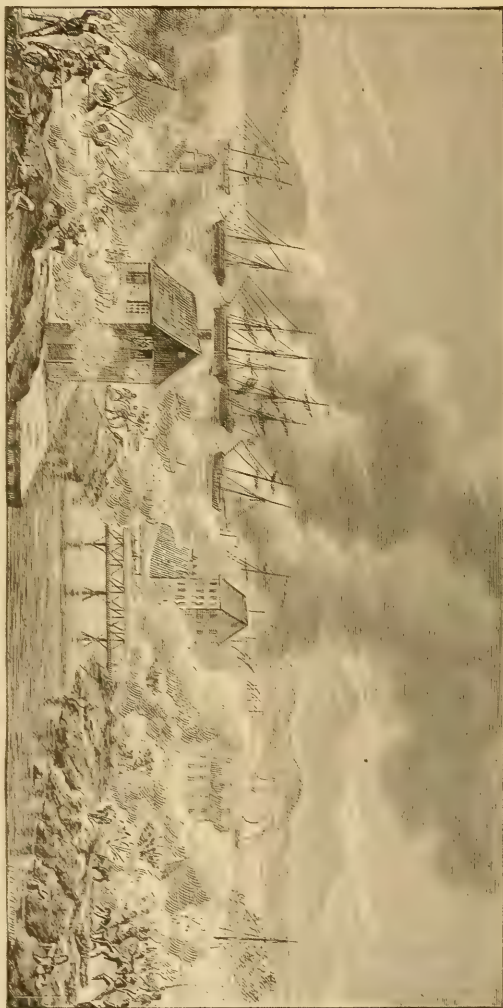
ica was startled by the news of Napoleon's overthrow; that meant a sending of British veterans fresh from their triumphs to carry on the war in America. But on

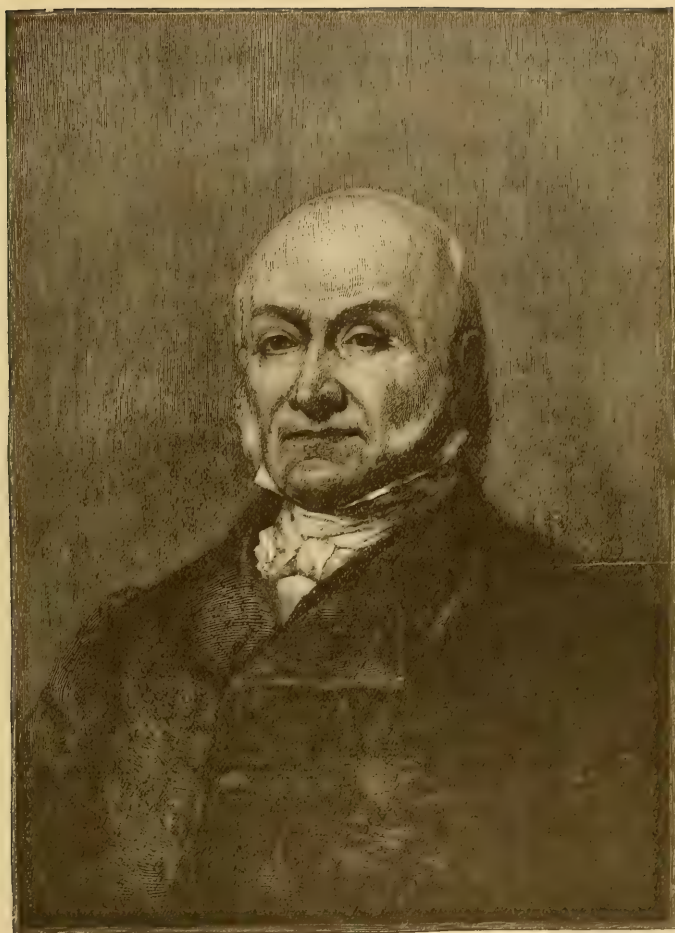
1814. July 5, 1814.

Gen. Browne fought and won the battle of Chippewa in Canada, compelling the British to retreat to their intrenchments. The latter, reinforced by troops from England, met the Americans again at Bridgewater; but the battle, though furious, was not decisive. Browne retired to Fort Erie. Drummond, the British general, besieged him. Browne determined upon a sortie, in which he was completely successful. Drummond raised the siege, and the Canadian campaign was over. Meanwhile, Sir George Prevost, the governor of Canada, led an army across to Lake Champlain, while a British fleet of sixteen vessels sailed down the lake to meet him at Plattsburg. Macomb, with three thousand men, was posted behind the Saranac river; McDonough, with a small fleet, was moored at Plattsburg. The ten thousand troops of Prevost were seized with panic, and fled precipitately, when it was learned that the British ships had struck their colors, after two hours

and a half hard fighting. Downie, the British commander, got away with the gunboats, but his larger vessels were all taken. Elsewhere, though, the Americans

MACDONOUGH ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN.





JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

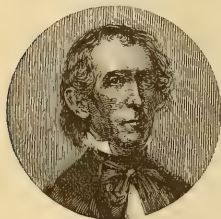
(pp. 873.)



were overwhelmed with disaster. In July the British entered the Penobscot and conquered the country east of the river. In August they entered the Chesapeake, passed the Potomac, and landed a force of five thousand men under General Ross, who marched upon Washington, set fire to the Capitol and the White House, and then hastily returned. British frigates next sailed up the Potomac, and levied contributions upon Alexandria. Gen. Ross then moved upon Baltimore. A fight took place at North Point, in which Ross himself was killed. But as the fleet made little impression upon the fort by their cannonade, and as the militia seemed to be strongly entrenched, the English determined to abandon the attack.

§ 774. A treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, December 24, 1814. This treaty left things as they were before the war began; nevertheless, the right of search has not since then been exercised by England, and was finally yielded. But before the

*Jan. 1815.* news of peace arrived in the United States, General Andrew Jackson won his famous victory of New Orleans. The British expected to strike a final and a fatal blow. If they could conquer the entrance to the Mississippi Valley, the republic would be at their mercy. General Packenham made the attack with twelve thousand men, on January 8, 1815. General Jackson entrenched behind earthbanks and cotton bales, held the invaders at bay. Packenham was killed; his forces lost heavily, and soon gave up the fight.



JAMES MONROE.

The Hartford Convention met just before the battle, to  
**1814.** decide that the war was a failure, and to

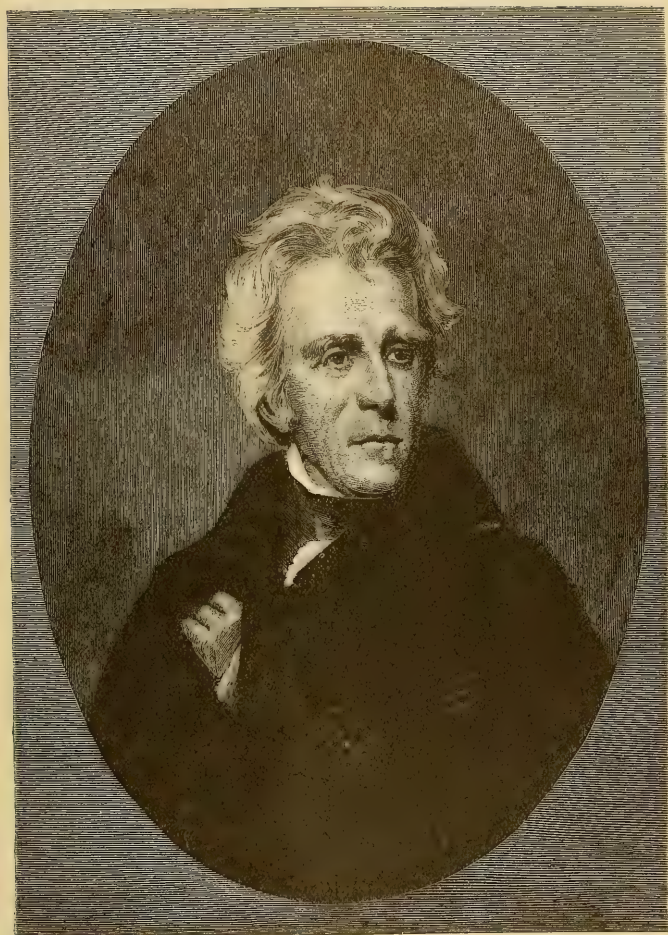
propose certain amendments to the constitution. It discredited New England for many years, being made the subject of frequent taunts and reproaches, in the exciting discussions between the South and the North. But the war of 1812 was the last armed conflict of the United States with

any European power, although the nation has been several times upon the brink of war.

During the administration of James Monroe, the Spanish colonies of Central and South America declared their independence. The king of Spain sought desperately to hold them, and looked to Russia and France for help. Canning, the English minister, proclaimed that he had called "the New World into existence to redress the balance of the old." But what Canning did, was only to join President Monroe in the declaration that the continental powers would not be permitted to reimpose the Span-

**1823.** ish yoke upon the self liberated lands. In his message of December 2, 1823, Monroe warned France and Russia that the United States would regard any attempts to extend their authority in America as dangerous to our peace and safety. It is sheer ignorance to speak of the Monroe doctrine as a declaration that Europe must "keep her hands off America." Spain has Cuba, England has Canada. But Monroe, under the advice of John Quincy Adams, gave the continental powers to understand, that any attempt to enlarge their influence, would be unfriendly conduct toward the United States.

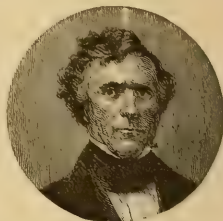
§ 775. While Andrew Jackson was president, the "French Spoliations" caused no little excitement, and for a time it looked like war. The "English Spoliations" were atoned for by the war of 1812, but not until Louis Philippe came to the French throne, did France consider seriously the wrong done to American commerce during



ANDREW JACKSON.

(pp. 875.)

1831. the Napoleonic wars. A treaty was concluded in 1831 providing for indemnity. But when the draft was presented at the French treasury, the appropriation had been forgotten, and the draft was protested. The King assured the President that the money would surely be paid. But kings promise, and Parliaments refuse. General Jackson exploded with wrath, and recommended a law authorizing reprisals upon French property. "I know them French. They won't pay unless they're made to!" he exclaimed to his famous Kitchen cabinet. But the French were angrier than Jackson. The French minister at Washington received orders to demand his passports; the American minister received his passports, without orders, from the government. An apology was demanded from the President, and preparations were made for war. Jackson stood firm, supported as he was by the ablest men of the country, John Quincy Adams in the lead. England offered her mediation, and the ancient friendship between France and the United States was at length restored.



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

Again the Maine boundary question caused great bitterness, and threatened to

1842. provoke a war with England. It was finally settled by the Webster-Ashburton treaty, of 1842. This was not the least achieve-

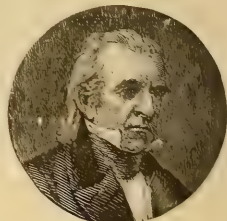


WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

1846. ment of those celebrated men. In 1846 the cry of "Fifty-four forty, or fight" went from Oregon to Maine, and from the Lakes to the Gulf. Great Britain ultimately yielded all the territory, south of forty-nine degrees, to the California line, and there was no fight.

But the annexation of Texas produced a war with Mexico. Texas had won her independence under the lead of Sam Houston and Stephen Austin. Reluctantly, the North consented to admit this vast slave territory into the American Union, especially with the understanding that five States might be carved out of its domain. Once admitted, Texas claimed the Rio Grande river as her boundary line. Mexico placed it on the Nueces river, one hundred miles further east. President Tyler, "his Accidency," ordered General Taylor to move to the Rio Grande. Mexico first ordered, then tried to drive him away. Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma soon made Zachary Taylor illustrious. The Mexicans retreated before the winner of these two battles, and Taylor took possession of Matamoros.

§ 776. War having been made by the President, Congress declared it on May 13, 1846. Taylor took Monterey in September, and with his five thousand men defeated Santa Anna, and his twenty thousand at Buena Vista. General Scott was now ordered to Mexico with a second army. He landed at Vera Cruz, and took the Gibraltar of Mexico; then pushed forward to Cerro Gordo.



JAMES K. POLK.

1847. In the late summer of 1847 he crossed the mountains, and marched



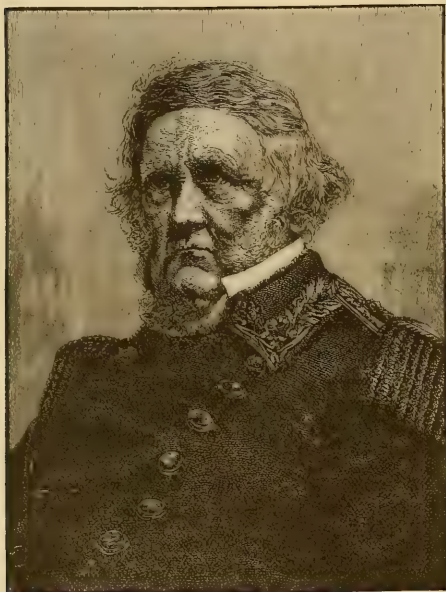


EPISODE OF THE SEMINOLE WAR.

down upon the city of Mexico. But first he must conquer the "King's Mill" Molino del Rey, and then the castle of Chapultepec. The capital saw the stars and stripes waving over the ancient palace of the Montezumas on the morning of September 14, 1847.

Grant, Lee, Sherman, Jefferson Davis, "Stonewall" Jackson, Kearney, in fact nearly all the men afterward distinguished in the civil war, served in Mexico. But among its sacrifices was the favorite son of Henry Clay.

§ 777. *Indian Wars.* Reference has been made already to the conspiracy of Tecumseh. He and his Indians were utterly defeated by General Harrison at Tippecanoe, in 1811. Three years later, General Jackson marched against the Creeks, and



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT.

drove them before him. They made a stand at Horse Shoe Bend, on a branch of the Alabama river, where they were routed utterly, and compelled to give up the larger part of their territory. In 1818 Jackson drove the Seminoles to bay in Florida, and in 1842 these Indians were finally conquered by General Taylor, after a desperate struggle that lasted for seven years. Black Hawk, a chief of the West, attacked the emi-

1832. grants to Illinois and Wisconsin, but he and his tribe were driven at last beyond the Mississippi river. Thus the Indians were dispossessed, partly by their own folly, and partly by the energy and the rapacity of the whites, of nearly sixty million acres of land in Georgia, Alabama, Missouri, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan. They struggled desperately against the westward progress of the European settlers, provoking a vindictive hostility, from which the wise policy of

removing them to Indian Territory subsequently rescued them.

c. *Political Development. The Constitution in Operation. Political Parties. The Tariff. Currency Questions. Changes in the States.*

§ 778. Thomas Jefferson founded the old Republican or, as it came to be called in after years, the Democratic party. Madison joined him in 1796, and Aaron Burr soon made the new party triumphant in New York, which has been, ever since, the determining factor in presidential contests.

Three causes combined to produce the result. Personal dislike of Alexander Hamilton, the leader of the Federalists; fear of the centralizing tendencies that were

so marked in the first decade of the More Perfect Union; and the great impulse given to democratic principles by the French Revolution. Hamilton, though a statesman of the highest rank, could stoop to the meanest intrigue. He could both efface and de-face himself in the pursuit of lofty purposes and far-reaching plans. It was therefore easy to suspect him of designs that he never cherished, and to attribute selfish and dangerous motives to his most patriotic measures. The centralizing tendencies of Washington's administrations sprang from the instinct of self-preservation. Opposition might, and did annoy and distress him, but his dignity and courage, his sagacity and foresight, lifted the presidential office into commanding authority. John Adams, however, had neither the prestige nor the majestic self-control of his illustrious predecessor. Charges of presidential tyranny made against the "puritan monarchist" found willing ears,—in the North, because the shadow of King George still disturbed the dreams of anxious Republicans; in the South, because the Federal Government might grow strong enough (the planters suspected) to abolish slavery. The paradox of American politics is this dread of tyranny for the whites, and dread of liberty for the negroes.

§ 779. The Constitution was hardly in operation before the first group of amendments passed to adoption. They modified materially the powers of the Federal Government, and are perhaps more valuable to-day than they were in 1791.

The election of 1800 however, revealed a defect in the instrument, that no one had foreseen. And when Burr received the same number of electoral votes as Jefferson, there began one of those disgraceful attempts to defeat the popular will by a resort to constitutional chicanery, which are the perpetual scandal of political strife. The wily young "boss" of the New York democracy, the prototype of the American practical politician, "full of stratagems and spoils" had been reluctantly accepted as vice-president by the older Jeffersonians. The angry Federalists, in their hatred of Jefferson, were ready to make Burr president, and would have done so, but for Alexander Hamilton, who, little as he liked the Virginia statesman, knew him to be what Burr was not, a patriot, a thinker, and so far as a politician could be "indifferent honest." That Jefferson contemplated the use of force, can hardly be doubted now; that the crisis came near to a great calamity, is equally clear. Jefferson made light of it in after years, but he was always a little jaunty when the danger lay behind him, and a little flighty when he looked it in the face. Elected finally, and inaugurated with

**1801-1809.** ostentatious simplicity, he refused to open Congress in person, and sent a written message. But in the Louisiana purchase and the embargo act, he stretched the power of the Federal government to its utmost limit. So too, in the prosecution of Aaron Burr for treason, he did not scruple to employ all the resources of his mighty office, and that Burr escaped punishment for his daring project to dismember the Union, was certainly no fault of his former ally. Yet the Virginia presidents, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, never organized the officers of the government into a personal following; indeed Madison declared, in a famous debate in 1789, that for a president to remove men from office for other than public reasons, would be infamous, and a proper ground for impeachment. And it redounds to Jefferson's honor, that even the exasperating conduct of John Adams, who occupied the last minutes of his official life in filling offices with his friends and partisans, could not drive him from the practice of his conviction, that to exclude a man from the public service for cour-



ageous and conscientious voting, was to transform the Republic into the "spoils" of political hirelings.

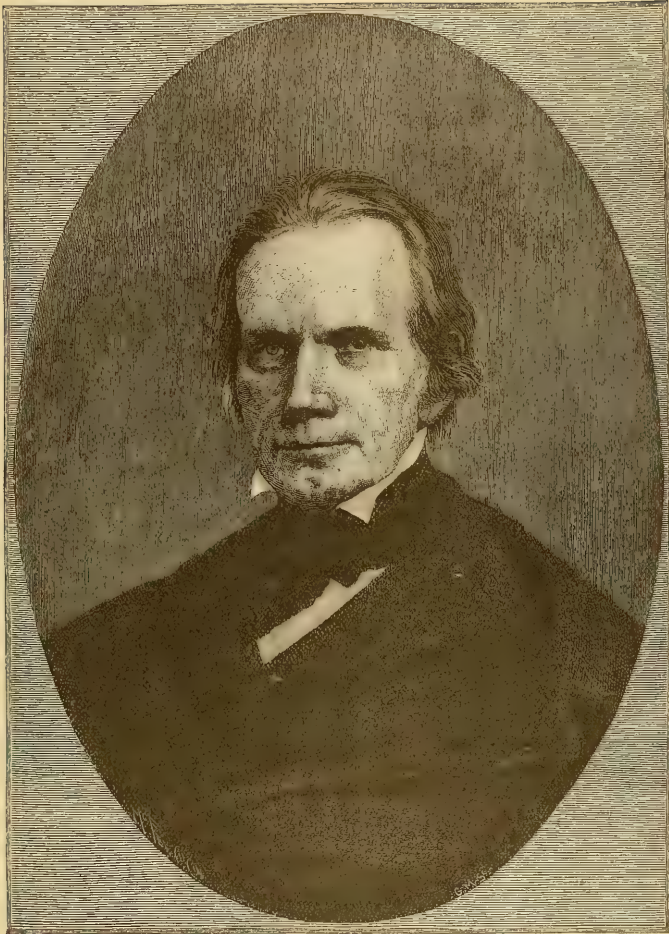
§ 780. The bullet buried by Aaron Burr in the breast of Alexander Hamilton destroyed the Federal party. What little remained of it, after the death of its great leader, perished in the War of 1812. But as Jefferson foresaw, the Democrats split inevitably into factions. Yet when the rupture came, it was not about principles, but about persons; it was not a quarrel about public policy, but about political methods.

Candidates for the presidency had been nominated by a caucus of congressmen  
1824. In 1824 the choice of the caucus was long foreseen to be William H.



DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON.

Crawford of Georgia. All the statesmen of the country were then in the Democratic party. John Quincy Adams and Daniel Webster, Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun, Martin Van Buren and William H. Crawford, Thomas H. Benton and Andrew Jackson. Under such circumstances, a nomination by a caucus of Congressmen, if ratified by the party leaders, meant the selection of a president by less than a hundred men. The country was in no mood for such a travesty of democratic institutions; the conspicuous leaders of the party were too numerous and too able to submit to its perpetration. To make the situation worse, Crawford, the prospective caucus nominee, became a paralytic in the crisis of the struggle. But dying is a hard task for a presidential candidate, or for an outworn political system. The crippled chief was nominated,



nevertheless. Thereupon conventions in the different states placed Jackson, Quincy Adams, and Clay before the people. Yet this new birth of American politics took place with painful throes. First of all, the people clamored for the right to choose the presidential electors. In New York the Crawford leaders refused the demand, and lost the state in consequence. And then, none of the four candidates received a majority of all the electors. Owing to the choice of electors in several states by the respective legislatures, it is even now impossible to determine who was the popular choice. Andrew Jackson afterward became the most powerful and most popular man in the United States; but he was not so in 1824. Mr. Adams surpassed him in learning, in eloquence, in dignity of character, in all the qualities of a statesman. But the election of the latter, by the House of Representatives, under the influence of Henry Clay, provoked a storm of hatred. Charges of bargain and corruption filled the air,

and for the first time in our history, a president was cynically and system-

**1825-1829.**

atically opposed, denounced, and vilified, at every step of his administration. These charges found an easy credence with the disappointed, and soon affected the minds of the great multitude: cunning politicians saw in them the possibilities of future success, and when Martin Van Buren, after the adroitest manipulation, transformed the State of New York into a Jackson stronghold, the fate of Adams and of Clay was settled.

§ 781. The period from 1823 to 1828 thus became a determining period in the political development of the United States. It developed the State "boss," of which Mr. Van Buren, the pupil of Aaron Burr, was the first successful specimen; it destroyed the Congressional caucus, and created the



CHIEF JUSTICE JOHN MARSHALL.

state conventions; it shifted the interest of presidential elections from public to personal questions; and it led to that system of "understandings" with party leaders, in the several States, from which have proceeded innumerable woes. When therefore

**1829-1833.**

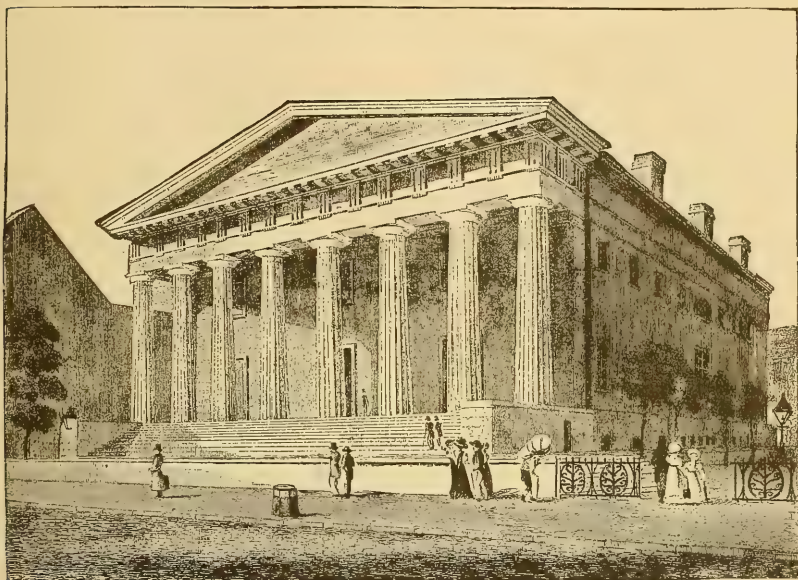
General Jackson was inaugurated in 1829, the "clean sweep" that followed, was a natural result. "In the first month of the new administration more removals from office were made, than had occurred from the foundation of the government to that time." Aaron Burr had triumphed. The system introduced by him into the politics of New York and adopted by Marcy and Van Buren, the system of Sir Robert Walpole and of George III. had been adopted by the hero of New Orleans, and become the working system of the United States of America. "To the victor belong the spoils." Henceforth the ballot box should decide, not between opposing



principles or opposing policies, nor between rival statesmen even, but between rival armies of place-hunters clamoring for spoils.

The Democratic National Convention for nominating a president followed in 1832. It was the first-born child of the new system, and its first cry was of course for the renomination of Andrew Jackson.

§ 782. While the President was thus enlarging his authority, the Supreme Court of the United States was establishing firmly the national theory of the Federal Union. Inspired by the powerful mind of John Marshall, that great tribunal expounded for sixty years the paramount sovereignty of the United States, in a series of decisions both lucid and logical. But this action of the Supreme Court followed, and by no



BANK OF THE UNITED STATES AT PHILADELPHIA. (NOW CUSTOM HOUSE.)

means anticipated the action of Congress.

The Federal Congress has been the shaping energy of our political development. For the second statute of the first Federal Congress established the protective system; and the Bank of the United States soon followed. Thus the industrial and financial system of the entire people were brought, at the very beginning, under Federal control, where they still remain. Internal improvements, at the expense of the Union, were ordered at first with hesitating prudence; to make them now is established public policy. Congressmen have asserted and acquired power in the appointment of public offices, which the framers of the constitution innocently supposed would be impossible; and by entrusting their speaker with the appointment of com-

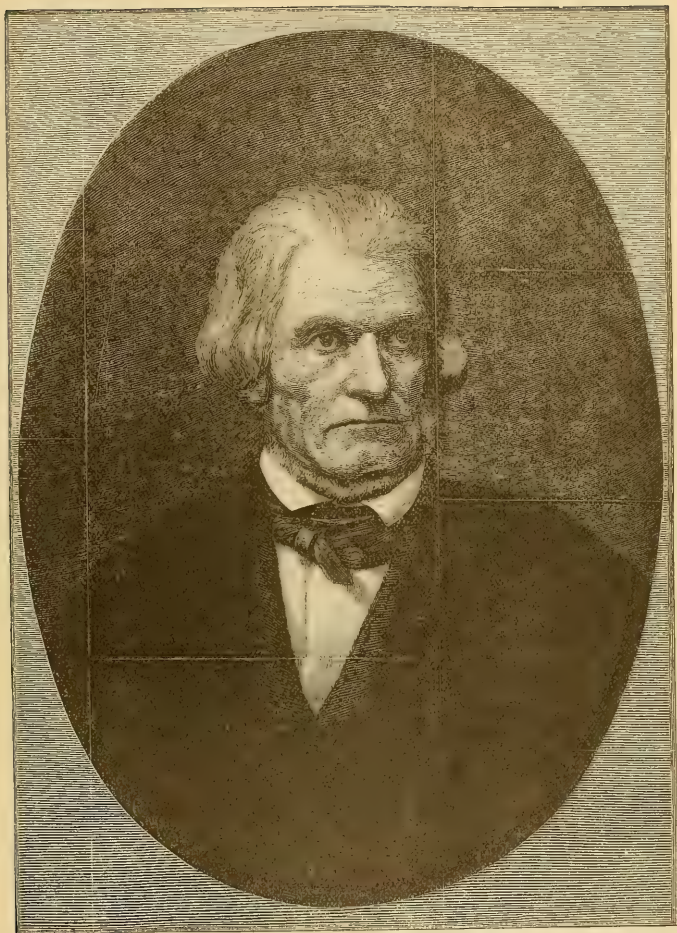
mittees have created an officer more powerful for good or evil than any but the President himself. During the period of Democratic rule, anxiety for slavery held in check and sometimes paralyzed these tendencies of Congress to enlarge its authority; but when slavery could be strengthened or advantaged by a stretch of legislative power, the subtle brain of Calhoun devised at once the means and the excuse. Witness his extraordinary suggestions, touching the right of petition, and excluding from the mails the publications forbidden by the various States.

§ 783. Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun joined hands in 1816 to repair the wastes of war, and to foster infant industries. Later on they parted company upon this and other questions. But the tariff of 1824, Clay's greatest triumph, encountered the massive blows of Daniel Webster. New England and the cotton States opposed it vehemently, and the "American System," as Clay called it, was established by the grain-growing States, the Middle States of the East and of the West and of the South. General Jackson was for the American system in 1824, for incidental protection in 1829, and for tariff reform in 1831. But Clay loaded down the American system with his defence of the U. S. Bank in 1832, and led the Whigs, as he afterward called his  
 1833. followers, to overwhelming defeat. Yet the next year he proposed and carried through the compromise tariff of 1833, in order to save Calhoun from humiliation and political ruin,—an act that brought him no gratitude and great regret. The tariff of 1828, "the tariff of abominations," as South Carolina called it, was greatly modified; a sliding scale of reductions was so arranged that in 1842 there  
 1842. would be left a general rate of twenty per cent. on dutiable goods. When this year arrived, Clay was once more powerful, and the American system was re-established.

In 1844 the position of parties was again beclouded by the legend "Polk,  
 1844. Dallas, and the tariff of 1842." But this legend dissolved in 1846,  
 1846. when Mr. Dallas gave the casting vote that carried the abolition of protective duties and established the tariff for revenue only, which lasted until 1861.

§ 784. The financial system of the country was, as we have seen, established first by Alexander Hamilton. But the Bank of the United States encountered, from the start, determined opposition. In 1811 Henry Clay defeated an attempt to re-charter it; although in 1816 he and Calhoun joined hands to give it new life and power, and during the administration of Andrew Jackson, he was its indefatigable champion.

The two men were both children of the people, and both men of genius; Jackson was incarnate courage; Clay was embodied conciliation. Jackson loved fight, Clay  
 1833-1837. loved victory. Jackson was irascible, incorruptible, self-willed, suspicious of his enemies, and intolerant of opposition, even from his friends. Clay was imperious, and impetuous, swift to think but swift to change, chivalrous, high-minded, sensitive, passionate, fascinating. The authority of Clay was in his eloquence, his lofty mien, his glowing eyes, the sweep of his gesture, the royal movement of his form, the commanding music of his voice. The authority of Jackson was, in his rugged speech, his defiant deeds, his unflinching adherence to his purpose, his belief that the will of Andrew Jackson was the wish of the people and the decree of the Eternal. But though Jackson loved fight and drifted naturally into collision with other men, he



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

(pp. 885.)



was always wary at the beginning. Clay, on the contrary, was precipitate at the outset, and conciliatory in the crisis of a great conflict. And to him rather than to Jackson is due the destruction of the bank. Jackson was ready to make terms; Clay refused. The re-charter was passed by Congress, but vetoed by the President; and the government deposits were next withdrawn by a doubtful stretch of executive power. Severed from the government, the bank lapsed into speculation, and finally into complete and ruinous disaster.

The deposits that had been withdrawn were distributed among "pet" banks of the various states; a policy that produced the destructive panic and widespread bankruptcy of 1837.

Clay and Jackson, the one by his precipitancy and the other by his obstinate daring, had sown the wind; Van Buren reaped the whirlwind. The specie circular of

1837-1841.

Clay had discredited the paper money of the banks; the people reasoned that if Jackson would not take it for public lands, it could not have much value. Van Buren, however, when he became president, refused to recall this "specie circular." He convened an extra session of Congress, to stare a deficit and a bankrupt country in the face. The New York "boss" was a man of great ability; cunning,

courageous, conciliatory; a statesman as well as the creator of a political machine. He proposed that the Government transact its own fiscal business; "collect, guard, transfer, and disburse its own monies." This sub-treasury scheme, which has now been in operation for more than half a century, was not passed until 1840. Clay saw in it "the ruin of republican institutions," and thundered against it with solemn prophecies; Webster opposed it with more foresight and a calmer wisdom. He discerned in it the beginning of that government interference with the currency of the country, which is the constant menace of our commercial life.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

Overthrown by Clay and his followers in 1841, the system was re-established in

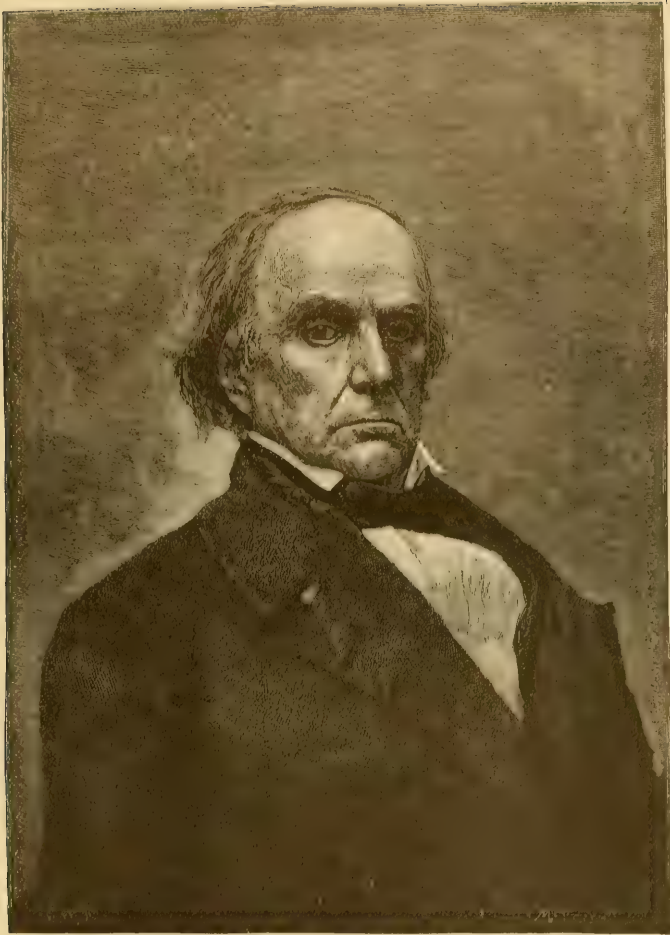
1846.

1846, and is likely to endure for many years to come.

§ 785. Meanwhile the States of the North and the West were tending to a broader democracy; restrictions upon the franchise were swept away; judges and officers generally were made elective, and foreigners were admitted readily to a share in the government. Presidential electors, once chosen by legislatures, came to be chosen by the people; and the State constitutions generally were revised in the supposed interest of the larger number. The government of the few, founded by our fathers, was shaped by their sons, acting in the several States, into the government of the many. For the constitution of 1787 was so deftly contrived, that the popular basis of it would broaden or contract according to the action of the different States. (Article 1, section 2, clause 1).

d. *Industrial Development. The Growth of Cities and of Religious Denominations.*

§ 786. The first invention that powerfully affected American history was the saw-gin of Eli Whitney, by means of which a slave who could before clean but five or six pounds of cotton in a day, was enabled to clean a thousand. Fulton came next with his invention of the steamboat, which gave new significance to the Hudson and



DANIEL WEBSTER.

(*pp.* 887.)

the Mississippi, to the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico. The Erie canal was begun in 1817, and finished in 1825, and was speedily followed by canals elsewhere. Lighting by gas began in 1822, not without bitter opposition from many enlightened citizens. Congress constructed a national road from Cumberland, in Maryland, as far as Indiana, to further immigration to the West. But in 1828 an English locomotive made its first trip near Mauch Chunk, in Pennsylvania. Stephenson's "Rocket" aroused the mechanics of America, and the "Arabian" started to run in 1833. The discovery that anthracite coal would burn, was diffused about this time, and began a quiet revolution in domestic life. But most wonderful of all, perhaps, was the invention of farm implements.

Thomas Jefferson could handle the violin and the plow with equal skill. Writing in 1788, he indicated the ideas for an improved plow, which were subsequently carried out to perfection by Jethro Wood (1819), Joel Nourse (1842), and James Oliver

(1853). But the great triumph of American invention in agricultural implements was the reaper of Obed Hussey, patented December 31, 1833. The manufacture of this machine began in 1834, and its chief feature has been incorporated in all harvesting machines made since. A patent was granted Cyrus McCormick, June 21, 1834; but the reapers built under this patent were not sufficiently practical for the market. Hussey's, however, were immediately introduced, and their inventor continued to build and sell them until his death. Hussey was probably indebted somewhat to the invention of Patrick Bell, an Episcopal clergyman, of Scotland, who made a reaper in 1826. These machines worked well, and one of them was used successfully in Madison



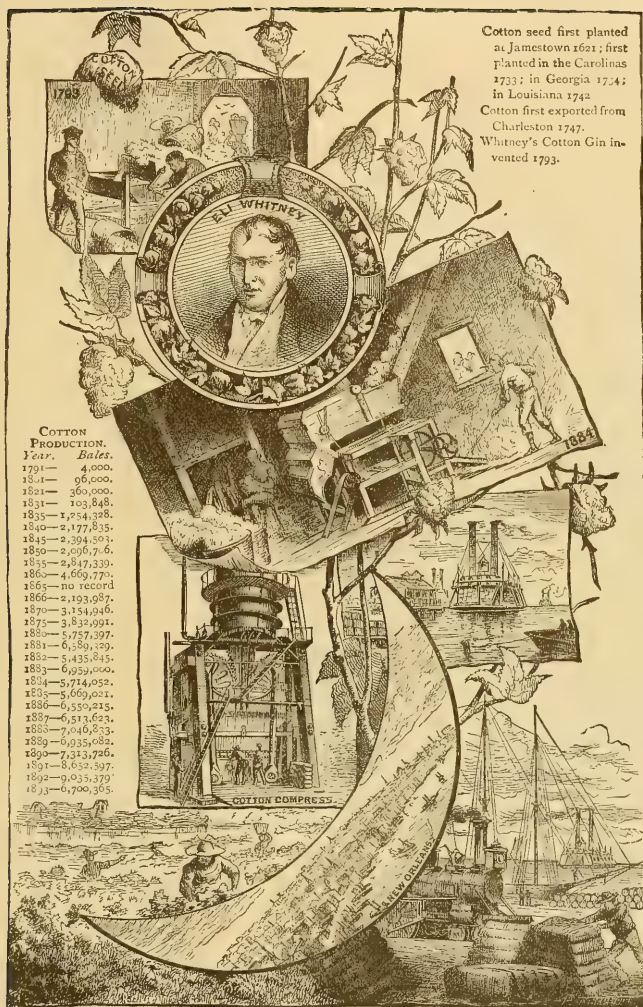
ROBERT FULTON.

County, N. Y., in 1834. McCormick began the manufacture of a practical machine at Brockport, N. Y., in 1845, and his subsequent success, in the introduction of the reaper, obscured obvious facts concerning its development. The Pitts brothers were the first American inventors to make a successful thresher. Their patent is dated December 29, 1837. The "Chicago Pitts," as it was called, found a market wherever grain was raised to any extent. Reaper and thresher determined the development of the West, as the cotton gin determined that of the South. While the latter tended to perpetuate slavery, steamboat and locomotive, reaper and thresher, made possible the States and helped develop the freemen that wrought its ruin.

Franklin played with the lightning, as Jefferson played with plow and violin. And the impulse given by him to the study of electricity led to the invention of the Morse telegraph, the electro-magnetic, which began to speak in 1844.

In the same year the copper mines of Michigan were opened, the Indians retiring



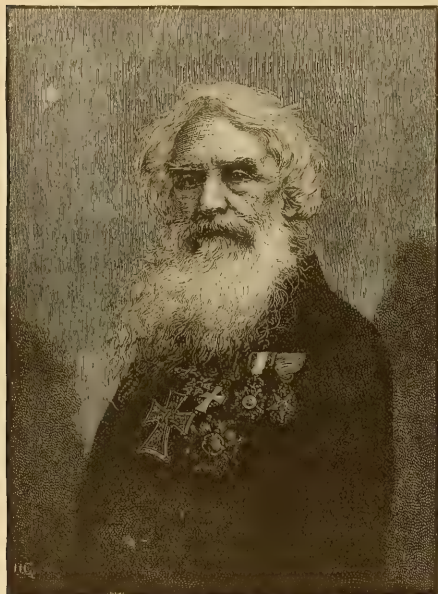


Cotton seed first planted  
 at Jamestown 1621; first  
 planted in the Carolinas  
 1733; in Georgia 1734;  
 in Louisiana 1742  
 Cotton first exported from  
 Charleston 1747.  
 Whitney's Cotton Gin in-  
 vented 1793.

from Lake Superior, and miners rushing thither. The sewing machine was patented by Elias Howe, in 1846, and the Hoe printing press the following year. These two inventions made possible the elaborate gowns and mammoth newspapers of the present day.

In 1848 gold was discovered in California, along the Sacramento river. Streams of adventurers hastened by sea and land to the "diggings;" and California became a free State.

§ 787. Philadelphia was, in 1790, the largest city in the Union, having a population of 42,520 souls. Boston, Baltimore, New York, and Charleston, were then her



PROF. SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.

only rivals, though Albany promised to be a city of importance. In 1850 Philadelphia took second place, with a population of 340,045; New York had climbed to half a million, and Chicago had bounded into the race with thirty thousand. Six cities rejoiced in more than a hundred thousand each, and there were more than thirty growing cities in the Union. The entire population of the nation was 23,191,876, and the centre of population was moving steadily westward. Foreign immigration had rapidly increased, owing to the famine in Ireland and the revolutions of 1848. The prospect of homesteads and of liberty, of political equality and free education, brought thousands hither, and these attracted thousands more.

§ 788. *The Religious Denominations.* The Church of England, subsequently the Protestant Episcopal Church, was deprived of its glebe lands and church property by the

Virginia legislature, in 1802. But Trinity Church, in New York city, and Christ Church, Philadelphia, were in better case. Under Hobart, Bishop of New York, that diocese became powerful and commanding; Griswold, of Massachusetts, accomplished much in New England. The "Oxford movement" begun by Keble, Newman, and Pusey in 1833, has powerfully affected, almost transformed, the Episcopal Church in America. For this ceased to be predominantly low, and became both high and broad. The Congregationalists of New England divided into many parties: Unitarians, Orthodox, Old Calvinists, Hopkinsians, and the like. But by a plan of union formed with the Presbyterians, in 1801, they hindered the extension of their own system and furthered dissensions among the Presbyterians.

For the Congregational wine fermented in the old bottles, and in 1838 there was a division into Old School and New School bodies. Princeton Seminary, established in 1812, furnished fire and learning for the Old School churches, while Union Seminary, founded in 1836, inculcated the gentler though less consistent doctrines of the New School divines. The Cumberland Presbytery declared its independence of the General Assembly in 1810; while the United Presbyterians combined and perpetuated in America, secessions from the Scottish church, dating back to 1688.

The Lutherans of the United States formed a General Synod in 1820, and in 1825 the German Reformed leaders established a seminary at Mercersburg, of which John Nevin and Philip Schaff were the teachers. Here was developed the "Mercersburg theology;" here began a transformation of the doctrine and worship of the Church in America.

The Methodists were troubled little by doctrinal differences; their creed was too simple, their preaching too urgent, and their purpose too direct. But they quarrelled much about church government, about the power of superintendents, the rights of laymen, and the proper attitude toward slavery. Their free churches and free spiritual life, the unstudied eloquence and ceaseless movement of the early preachers, and their insistence upon personal experience, their elastic and efficient organization made them singularly successful. But in 1844 they divided upon the question of slavery, and gave the first indication of the "irrepressible conflict" already begun in American life.

The Quakers divided upon doctrine in 1827. The Baptists, never having been one body, could not separate. Mennonites and Dunkards and Seventh-day Baptists came from Germany and Holland. The Free Will Baptists organized in New England, in 1827. While Alexander Campbell and his followers were disfellowshipped in 1827, an event that led to the "Disciples," or "Campbellites," as they were variously called.

The Roman Catholics established a metropolitan see in Baltimore, in 1808, and

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE UNITED STATES.





held their first provincial council there in 1829, and their first plenary council in 1852. In 1844 furious riots broke out in Philadelphia, in which some Catholic churches were destroyed. In the same year. Orestes Brownson joined the ancient church, and John Hughes was developing that administrative skill and political sagacity, to which the Roman Catholic church in New York is so much indebted. Of the many curious religious growths in the United States, none is so wonderful as Mormonism. Joseph Smith found the Book of Mormon in Manchester, N. Y., in 1830. An angel (so he said) guided him to the thin gold plates, upon which Mormon, the Jew, had written the divine revelation. In 1843 another revelation was vouchsafed him, this time to sanction a plurality of wives. The "Latter Day Saints" established their new Jerusalem at Nauvoo, Illinois. But they were driven thence in 1848, and traveled on to Utah, where they founded Salt Lake City. Smith perished at the hands of a mob, and his place was filled by Brigham Young.

§ 789. *The Development of Schools.* The first half of the century was a period of extraordinary activity in the school life of the United States. The founders of the republic believed that to send "a son into the world uneducated" was to "defraud the community of a useful citizen, and to bequeath to it a nuisance." And the democratic tendencies of the age soon asserted themselves in the development of common schools. Many of the States created permanent school funds from the sale of public lands; the Western Reserve of Ohio, for instance, which was sold for one million dollars, and devoted to school purposes, testifying to the thrift, the forethought and the intelligence of Connecticut statesmen. Taxes upon banks, lotteries, and other devices were also employed.

The Northwestern Ordinance of 1787 provided that "schools, and the means of education, should be forever encouraged," and the policy therein begun was steadily maintained by Congress, which made munificent grants of public lands for school purposes to all the newly admitted States. Of the thirty million dollars distributed from the treasury surplus by the act of 1836, nearly one half was given to education. But these large amounts furnish but a portion of the resources for mental training. Local taxes, paid without a murmur until sectarian strife began, are the life blood of our educational system.

Horace Mann of Massachusetts stands conspicuously first as the leader in the improvement of our public school system. Henry Barnard of Connecticut comes easily next. Thomas Dorr, the leader of Dorr's rebellion, in Rhode Island, gave to his State not only unrestricted suffrage, but a vigorous management and inspection of her town schools.

For the better training of teachers, institutes were organized in the West, in 1834, and in the East in 1839. The Normal school followed under the urgent pressure of James C. Carter, in 1838; the first appeared in Massachusetts, and others slowly emerged from a wearisome struggle for existence in other states.

§ 790. For a long time Boston stood alone in the possession of high schools. Philadelphia followed her example with a Central High School in 1837. Although the Rochester and Buffalo Seminaries, established in 1827, were high schools in reality. Boston succeeded so well with its high school for girls, begun in 1826, that it had to be abandoned. The tax-payers, panic-stricken at the expense involved for educating so many of the other sex, insisted on its closing. Philadelphia opened a high school

for girls in 1840, but under the guise of a training school for teachers. Cincinnati built one in 1847, and Boston recovered from its fright in 1852. These schools provoked no little opposition, which in Massachusetts took a legal form. The Supreme Court however decided in their favor, a decision now generally accepted by the judges in other States.

Thirteen state universities were added in fifty years to the four created before 1800. Dr. Manassah Cutler, who was the author of the national policy of reserving the public lands for educational purposes, drew the charter for the Ohio University, which was the first in the Northwest.

But the nation and the state have not done all the work of education. Religious zeal and private munificence have sustained the older institutions, and established new ones with noble self-sacrifice and glorious generosity. But three schools of theology existed in the United States prior to this century. Twenty-eight existed in 1850. The first law school began in Maryland in 1812, but the progressive step was taken by the University of Virginia, when it co-ordinated law with language and science in 1825.

"The College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York City" established in 1800, began a new epoch in medical training. Philadelphia however developed the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania so wisely, that for many years the majority of medical students went thither to be trained.

The Rensselaer School of New York, and the Fellenberg Institute of Connecticut, opened the pathway to industrial education. Roebling, the builder of Brooklyn Bridge, was an alumnus of the former.

The West Point Academy and the Naval School were founded respectively in 1802 and 1845. The latter is the creation of Chauvenet, the teacher, and Bancroft, the historian, then secretary of the navy under James K. Polk.

§ 791. But while all this stir was making for the education of intelligence, philanthropic minds were busy planning for the afflicted, the deformed and feeble-minded, and boldly attacking the difficult problem of educating the criminal.

Gallaudet, a Connecticut clergyman, undertook the education of the deaf mute child of his neighbor; and God made of him, for his reward, the benefactor of ten thousands. His Connecticut asylum, opened in 1815, gave rise to eleven more in thirty years.

Dr. Howe of Boston introduced the asylum for the blind into the United States, the Perkins Institute beginning at Boston, in 1832; in less than twenty years there were eleven such new skies shining above these liberated souls.

Reformatories for young criminals and first offenders originated in 1820; they were instituted by private beneficence, and regarded with suspicion and as doubtful experiments.

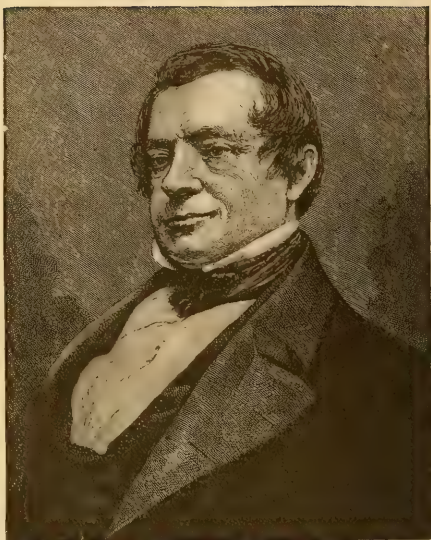
For the Indian, however, neither Congress nor philanthropists took thought. In 1820 ten thousand dollars was appropriated to "civilize" the red man, and the Indian Bureau was established in 1833. But during the period of which we are treating now, he was the victim of treachery, neglect, rapacity, and prejudice.

The influence of slavery upon the schools of the South requires serious study. De Bow's Review, a southern publication, declared in 1859 that the New England system was not feasible in the South. Yet noble efforts were made, and generous sums

appropriated annually for public schools, in many of the Southern States. That they did not succeed is doubtless due in many ways to slavery, but other causes were at work, the chief of which date from the old colonial days.

Auxiliary to colleges and schools, were the many libraries and learned societies, which were established in the first half century of our national existence. The powerful and capacious brain, the large and generous heart of Benjamin Franklin, gave the first impulse to these currents of intellectual energy. Quincy of Boston, Astor of New York, and Smithson, the founder of the great institute at Washington, must be remembered with him.

§ 792. *Literature.* With all this stir of intellectual movement, literature could not be lacking. Easily chief of

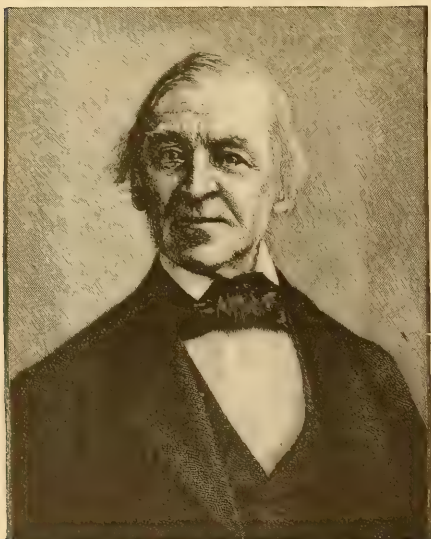


WASHINGTON IRVING.

American writers of this period was Washington Irving, of New York.

1783-1859.

His "Sketch Book" belongs, not simply to our literature, but to the master-pieces of the English language. "Knickerbocker's History of New York" gave the first indications of the rich humor that softens the strenuous energy of the American character, while his biographies kept alive the faith in Columbus and in Washington, dimmed in the one case by critical discovery, and eclipsed in the other by the legends of Napoleon. Henry Reed opened up for Americans the poetry of Wordsworth, Emerson made them acquainted with Carlyle, Longfellow explored the treasures of Continental literature, Bancroft taught them the value of German historical investigation, Ticknor wrote a history of Spanish literature, Felton opened up



RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

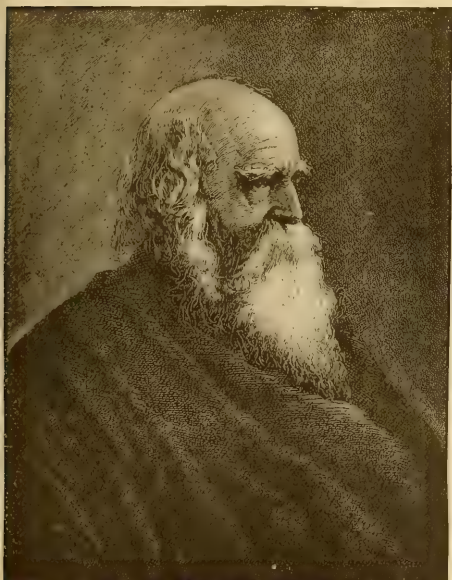




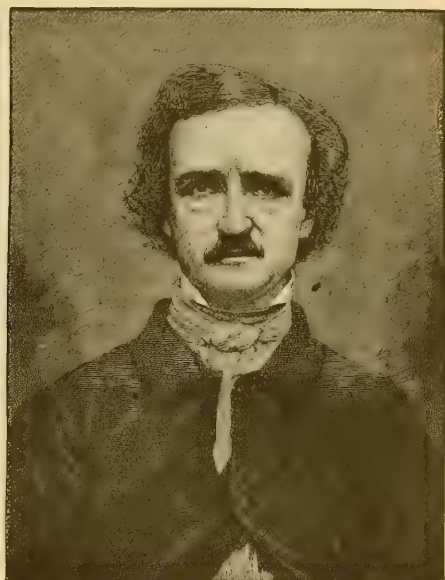
HENRY DAVID THOREAU.—1817-1862.



JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.—1789-1851.



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.—1794-1878.



EDGAR ALLAN POE.—1809-1849.

AMERICAN AUTHORS.

(pp. 895.)

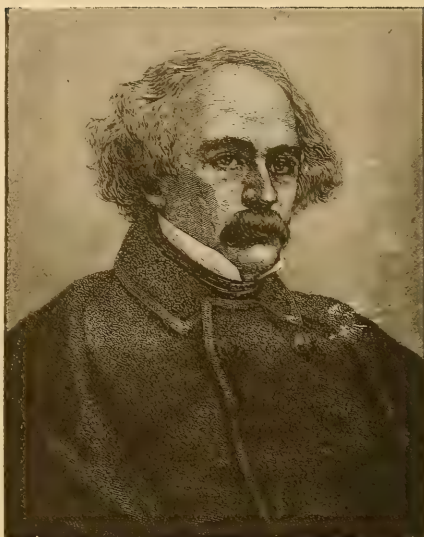
the wealth of classic lore, Hedge of Boston taught them the beginnings of German philosophy, while Dana and Hudson fascinated them by their knowledge of the English drama.

Ralph Waldo Emerson is beyond question the most original of Ameri-

**1803-1882.** can writers, full of insight and of inspiration, a child of nature and a man of culture, a calm and courageous thinker, a poet with moments of divine rapture, a philosopher without a conscious system, responding to all the influences of his time, but always maintaining his integrity and individuality.

James Fenimore Cooper published his "Pioneers" in 1823, and Europeans began to read American books; for Cooper taught both them

**1789-1851.** and his own countrymen the resources of American life,



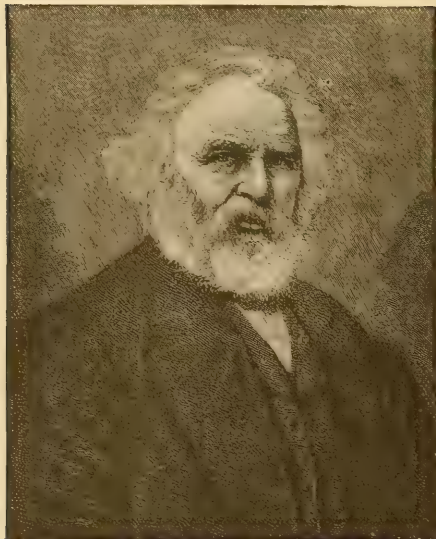
NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

the picturesqueness of its traditions, and the phases of human character that developed under such unusual conditions.

Nathaniel Hawthorne in the "Scarlet Letter" first portrayed the tragedy of guilt, wearing out the lives of men and women in the narrow and sombre surroundings of an old New England town. With a Shakesperian insight into those mysterious influ-

**1804-1864.** ences that "shape our destinies, rough hew them as we may," he made his readers stand in solemn awe, and yet wove about them too, the spell of an enchanting humor.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, **1807-1882.** the most popular of American poets, is also the most artistic. Oliver Wendell Holmes, the most **1809.** intellectual, the wittiest, and the most concise. William Cullen Bryant abounds in sympathy with



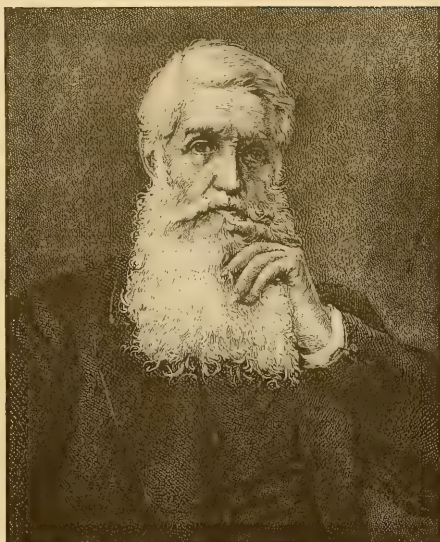
HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

nature and with noble aspirations, in religious and patriotic feeling, in reverence for beauty and for God. Longfellow's "Evangeline," Holmes' "Old Ironsides" and Bryant's "Thanatopsis" all belong to this earlier period of our literature.

Margaret Fuller Ossoli stood almost alone among the women of **1810-1850.** this time, for her breadth of view, her intrepidity, and her intellectual strength. Other literary women appeared, but they were devoted chiefly to poetic effort.

Richard Hildreth wrote a History of the United States, which has been the guide of every accurate historical writer of American history since its publication.

Jared Sparks, once president of Harvard College, edited the works of **1794-1866.** Franklin and Washing-

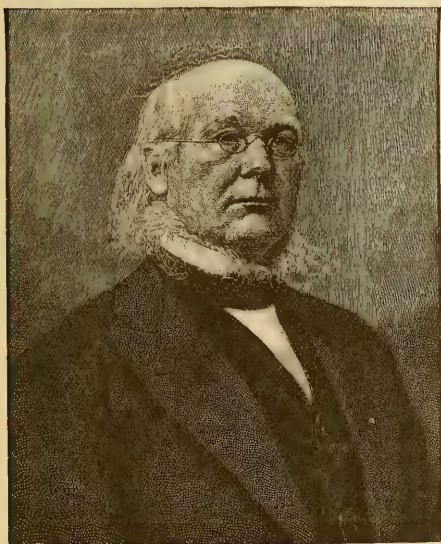


GEORGE BANCROFT.

ton, and composed a series of biographies of conspicuous merit.

George Bancroft enveloped our **1800-1891.** early history in dazzling rhetoric, where great breadth of view, much philosophic speculation, and vast stores of knowledge were hidden in the glow of flashing phrases. Inaccuracies, however, were not swallowed in the flame, and provoked recrimination, and many of Bancroft's judgments have been reversed by sober investigation.

In the South, William Wirt published the "Letters of a Spy," and his life of "Patrick Henry;" John P. Kennedy gave a picture of old Virginia life entitled "Swallow Barn," and Gilmore Simms wrote stories of Southern character and scenery. Edgar A. Poe, the most remarkable of all, produced weird tales and wonderful poems, which



HORACE GREELEY.



have made the memory of his early death a perpetual regret. Washington Allston, of South Carolina, is another of those men whose actual achievements are so disappointing. Painter and poet, he lived contented with his visions of the beautiful, and sought neither wealth nor fame. He lived above the world; was never haunted by the necessity of self-expression, and never hungry for applause. His sonnets and his "Sylphs of the Seasons" are marvelous in diction, rich in fancy and in noble sentiment.

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A brief reference to the Daily Newspaper must end these suggestions. Francis P. Blair went to the city of Washington in the days of Jackson, and lifted his journal and himself into places of commanding power. William Cullen Bryant gave his vigorous intellect, his lucid style and his incorruptibility to the New York Evening Post. James Gordon Bennett brought a peculiar conscience, an aggressive temper, and a keen scent for news and public opinion to the creation of the New York Herald. George D. Prentice became the ardent friend of Henry Clay, and with his biting sarcasm, his rich humor, and poetic diction, won for the Louisville Courier a national reputation. Horace Greeley informed the New York Tribune with his powerful and unique personality. Rugged mental vigor, imperious and courageous energy, a fondness for paradox and for progress, a hospitality for new and even strange ideas, made the journal, that was founded and conducted by him, the most influential of his generation. Morton McMichael and Joseph R. Chandler gave to the North American, of Philadelphia, decided character and wide-spread influence. Henry J. Raymond created the New York Times, displaying in the conduct of it, amazing energy and great steadiness of conviction. Thurlow Weed, uniting, as perhaps no other man in America, the skill of the practical politician with the journalistic genius, conquered for his Albany newspaper a place quite unique in American life.

The first newspaper in America was the *Boston News-Letter*, published in 1704, and named apparently in honor of a *Boston News-Letter* attempted in 1690, but promptly suppressed by the authorities of Massachusetts. The next city to enjoy the privilege was Philadelphia, where the *Mercurie* was started in 1719. The *New York Gazette* began in 1725, and the *Virginia Gazette* in 1736. In 1830 the number of newspapers published was eight hundred and fifty-two, of which fifty were dailies. In 1850 this number had increased to two thousand five hundred and twenty-six.

The *North American Review*, established in 1815, is the only one of the many high-class periodicals attempted in our early history which still survives. *Godey's Ladies' Book* on the other hand perpetuates a type of magazine once exceedingly popular and powerful, but now almost extinct. It is, however, in these defunct reviews and magazines that the literary development of the American people can best be traced.

### 3. THE STRUGGLE TO RESTRICT NEGRO SLAVERY AND THE WAR TO PRESERVE THE UNION.

§ 711. From the foundation of "the more perfect union" in 1787 to the election of Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency in 1860, powerful forces tended to separate the United States of America into dissevered sections. The first of these, local jealousies, existed long before the Revolutionary struggle. They had endangered the Colonies in the days of the French and Indian conflict; they broke out even amid the perils of the war for independence; they brought the first union of the states to the verge of dissolution, and prevented, almost, the formation and adoption of the constitution of 1787. They were due, partly to the natural disposition of men to prefer their own tribe and their own neighborhood; partly to real diversities of feelings, of interests, of character, and historical antecedents; and partly to suspicious engendered in ignorance and nourished by selfish and ambitious leaders.

A still more powerful tendency to separation originated in Negro slavery. This existed at one time in all the colonies and its existence was everywhere deplored; Washington, Jefferson, Henry, Wythe, the friend and preceptor of Henry Clay, Randolph and Madison, all of them Virginians, looked upon it with undisguised alarm, hoped for its gradual extinction, and Jefferson especially worked ardently but unsuccessfully for its abolition. It was abolished in the Northern States at the beginning of the nineteenth century, although the slave-trade was continued until 1808. But the climate and soil of the South favored slave-labor, and the invention of the cotton-gin made the cotton crop the great staple of southern produce. Slavery took on a new aspect, both economically and morally, in the eyes of the southern people; the South became wholly agricultural and great plantations became the rule; slave-holders, though always a small minority of the citizens of the South, became, by reason of their wealth and culture, the ruling power in the political and social life of their section; the Negroes were of course brought up in ignorance, but public-schools for the education of the children of the Whites were never or seldom established.

The North on the other hand became a section of diversified industries; of commerce, manufactures, and free-hold farming. In New England, in the free states of the Northwest, in New York and Pennsylvania a system of free schools was established, that brought the power and delight of knowledge within the reach of every intelligent child.

In the South discussion of the slavery question became gradually unpopular and finally impossible.

In the North it was also unpopular at times and in some localities quite dangerous; yet it was always possible and finally broke forth with unquenchable energy.

§ 712. That these tendencies wrought so mightily for mischief was due, however, to a political theory of the constitution, and to certain peculiarities in the structure of the Federal government.

This political theory was the doctrine of secession, first propounded in a limited form in the Kentucky Resolutions of 1798, which were written by Thomas Jefferson, though not acknowledged by him during his life time. These were subsequently developed and enlarged by Calhoun and others, into the doctrine of State Sovereignty with the derivative right of nullification. The doctrine was urged in 1798 in the interests of a Free Press and of personal liberty; it was revived in 1830 in the

interests of free trade, and in opposition to a tariff declared to be, by Calhoun, wholly in the interests of Northern industry.

In the form given to it in 1830 it made at first but few disciples; in 1860, however, it dominated almost exclusively the press, and the public opinion of the South, except in the border states. A few strong men in the cotton states still held to the paramount authority of the Union, but the great mass of Southern citizens believed  
 1830. their first allegiance to be due to the local state government.

The structural defect in our political system was the constitution of the Senate and of the electoral colleges; each state being represented in the Senate by two senators, no matter how small its population, mere territory came to have undue power. When therefore the rapid increase of the population of the North, due to the presence of slavery in the South, threatened to shift the centre of political power from Virginia northwards, southern statesmen became eager to create new slave states and to acquire, by purchase and by conquests, new territory out of which to make them. The acquisition of Louisiana and of Florida were acts of lofty statesmanship, quite independent of such considerations, and was as necessary and as profitable to the West as to the South. Yet the new states made from these regions kept the balance of power equal until 1820.

The annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, and the increase of territory consequent upon it, the attempts to acquire Cuba, and to get a foot-hold in Central America, were all parts of a policy to extend the political power of slavery;—an extension which would have been impossible if population had not been sacrificed to sectional jealousies in the structure of the Senate, and of the electoral system. Finally the patronage system of appointments to public office begun by Aaron Burr, in New York, and developed by Andrew Jackson in the Nation, greatly aggravated these evil tendencies. Congress, which the framers of the Constitution had (they thought) carefully separated from executive interference, could not escape this meanest and most dangerous form of administrative influence. An army of office-holders became obedient vassals of the executive will, and a policy, supported by the President, was sure to find adherents wherever there were offices and office-seekers. A national election came to be a fierce struggle for place and emolument, and a change of administration meant for thousands, sharp, immediate, and in many cases, ruinous loss.

§ 713. How these tendencies co-operated to produce the civil war will appear in the following section—

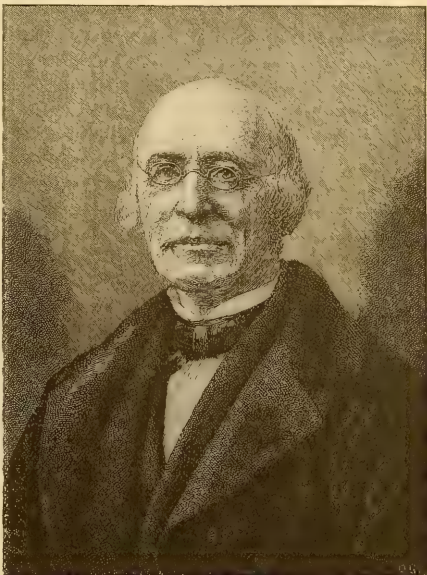
In 1784 Thomas Jefferson proposed in Congress the abolition of slavery in the Northwest territory after the year 1800; he failed of success by a single vote. In 1787 the proposition was renewed and adopted. This action of the old Congress dedicating so vast an area to perpetual freedom was not challenged anywhere. The feeling against slavery both South and North, was too strong at that time to warrant any stubborn opposition.

In the first Congress in the New Union, the question of the power of Congress over slavery in the several states was raised by a memorial of the Pennsylvania Abolition Society; the debate was vehement, coarse, and even indecent. Yet the House declared Congress incompetent to deal with slavery in the several states by the narrow majority of two only,—the vote standing twenty-seven to twenty-five.

After this the question of slavery excited no ill-feeling until 1820. In the mean-



time, however, threats of disunion were by no means uncommon or confined to a single section. Local independence was too firmly rooted in the American character to disappear immediately, and whenever a section or a state could not prevail in the National councils, the speedy dissolution of the Union was predicted, and sometimes the angry prophets strove mightily to help along the fulfillment of their prophecies. On the Southwestern frontier and in New England, these tendencies were marked, and the old antagonism between New England and the South came sharply to the surface in the second war with Great Britain. But when the admission of Missouri as a slave state was challenged by the free states in 1820, the conflict of feelings and of interests brought disunion perilously near. At that time there existed neither the disposition nor the power in either section to compel the other to remain. The Missouri compromise therefore saved the Union, and postponed the separation for nearly half a century. Though not begun, it was carried to a successful completion by the eloquent and persuasive Henry Clay. But great changes were at hand. Daniel Webster began in 1830 that exposition of the Constitution as an indissoluble compact, which became the intellectual basis of the future passion for the Union.



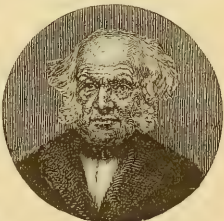
WM. LLOYD GARRISON.

A few years afterward, Andrew Jackson, then president, uttered his famous declaration, "THE FEDERAL UNION, IT MUST AND SHALL BE PRESERVED," and this



JOHN TYLER.

was followed by his decisive conduct toward South Carolina when that state, under the influence of Calhoun, nullified by ordinance the tariff act of 1828. In his proclamation of December 10th, 1832, appeared the notable words "Our Constitution does not contain that absurdity of giving power to make laws, and another power to resist

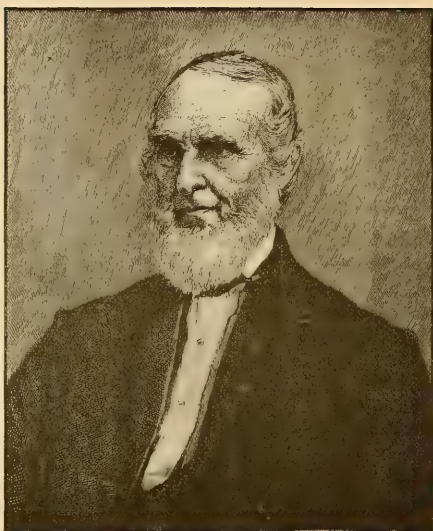


ZACHARY TAYLOR.

them; to say that any state may at pleasure secede from the Union is to say that the United States is not a nation."

The North hailed this declaration with unanimous enthusiasm, but the South accepted it with misgiving. Outside of South Carolina the motive of the President was

approved, but his doctrine was seriously doubted. Jackson's bold demeanor, the knowledge of his unflinching courage, the popular enthusiasm that rallied to his support, the failure of Calhoun's plan to involve the other Southern states would have led to the humiliation of South Carolina, but for the interference of Henry Clay with the compromise of 1833, an interference, the wisdom of which Clay seriously doubted in his later years. In 1831 William Lloyd Garrison began the publication of his "Liberator" and the moral attack upon American slavery. This at first attracted not much attention, but in 1833 a National Anti-Slavery convention was held in Philadelphia, and in the same year Great Britain abolished slavery in the West Indies. A slave insurrection in Virginia about the same time increased the alarm of



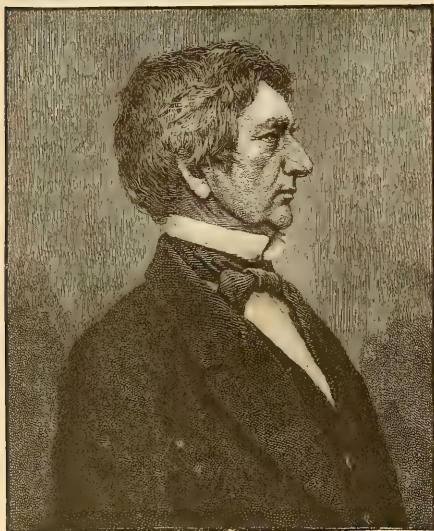
JOHN G. WHITTIER.

the slave-holders. They began to demand the suppression of the Abolition movement, the exclusion of all anti-slavery documents from the mails, and the punishment by law of all anti-slavery agitators. Nevertheless petitions were sent to Congress praying the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, and the great debate was opened, which was destined not to close, until slavery perished as a consequence of civil war.

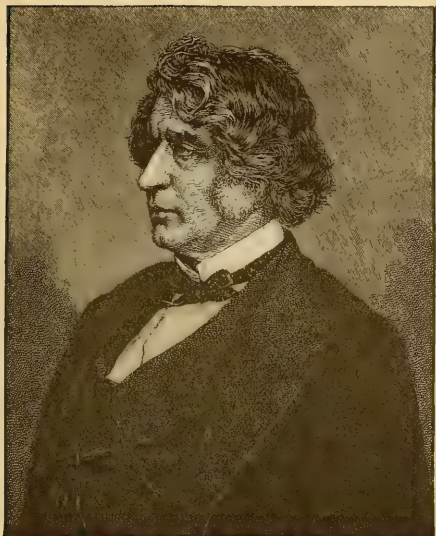
§ 714. Calhoun meanwhile propagated eagerly in the Senate and in the Southern States, his theory of State sovereignty, and at the same time developed his plans for the territorial extension of slavery. In

1844

1844 President Tyler sent the treaty for the annexation of Texas, to the United States Senate, transmitting with it a mes-



WILLIAM H. SEWARD.



CHARLES SUMNER.

was pushed aside for a while, and in 1847 Calhoun introduced a series of resolutions, affirming that a constitution by its own force carried slavery into all the territories belonging to the Union. But in 1848 a Free Soil convention met at Buffalo, in numbers large enough to prove that the

**1848** opposition to slavery extension was both powerful and determined. In 1849 California applied for admission as a free state, for the discovery of gold had crowded the territory with immigrants who had no desire for slavery. And when Taylor, the hero of the Mexican War, a Southerner and a slave-holder, who had been elected to the Presidency in 1848 urged the immediate admission of California, Southern Congressmen were angered and surprised. Threats of disunion filled the air. But the conqueror of Buena Vista

sage of his own and a dispatch of Mr. Calhoun, his Secretary of State, addressed to Lord Aberdeen. Both these documents stated in undisguised language that the annexation was for the protection of the "domestic institutions" of the United States. This protection of slavery hastened its destruction. For the annexation of Texas led to the war with Mexico, to the conquest of California, and the reopening of all the questions relating to our domestic institutions. Sagacious southern Whigs, like Robert Toombs, warned their countrymen of the inevitable outcome. But they spoke in vain against the storm of popular feeling. The war was not yet closed when David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, offered a proviso to a pending bill, that in all territories acquired from Mexico, slavery should be forever prohibited. This proviso



MRS. H. B. STOWE.



declared emphatically that disunion was treason, and intimated that he would take the field in person against any show of armed resistance. But General Taylor died suddenly in July, 1850, and the change of the political situation enabled Clay to accomplish a third great compromise.

Calhoun, with marvelous astuteness, opposed all compromises, deeming it dangerous folly in the South to postpone the issue until the North could overwhelm her by sheer force of numbers. Clay on the other hand, who tolerated, but did not love slavery, and who scouted Calhoun's doctrine of the necessity of a political equilibrium between North and South, was ready for almost any sacrifice that would perpetuate the Union. But the compromise failed to satisfy the active elements of either section. The South resented the admission of California as a free state, and the numerical superiority of the free states in the Senate; the North was exasperated by the new fugitive slave law. Attempts to capture alleged slaves provoked riots in Pennsylvania, New York, and Boston; personal liberty bills were passed in several northern states whereby the law was greatly hampered in its execution. Lowell, and Longfellow, and Whittier stirred the people with their poems; and the pulpits of the North began to resound with denunciations and defences of slavery, preached to excited congregations.

§ 715. In 1853 Franklin Pierce, the newly elected president, congratulated the country upon the permanent settlement of the slavery question; yet his words had hardly died away before the strife blazed out more fiercely than ever. For in 1854, Stephen A. Douglas introduced the famous Kansas and Nebraska bill.



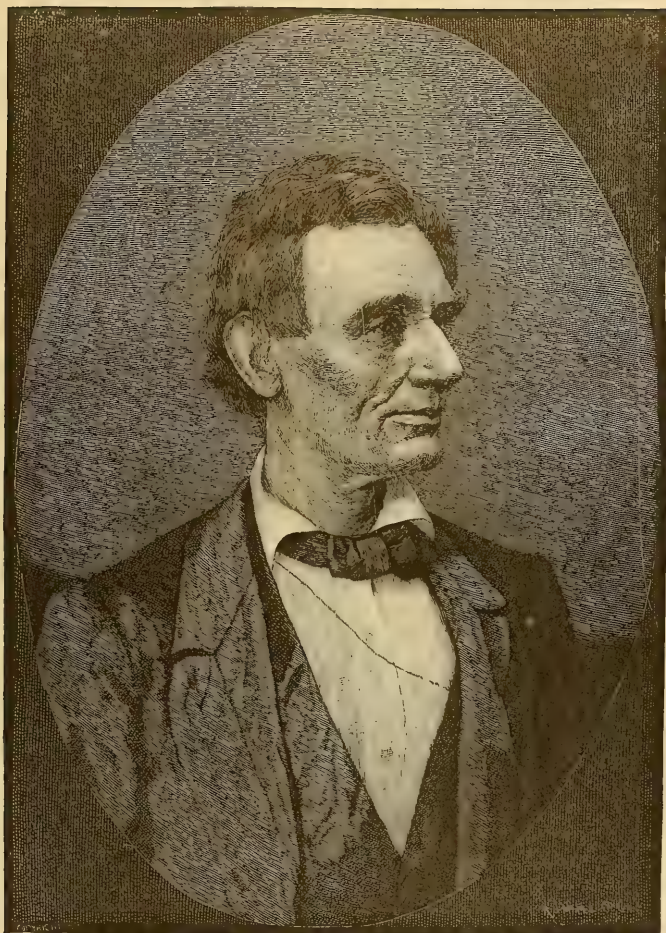
FRANKLIN PIERCE.

1854. This repealed the Missouri compromise, referring the question of slavery in the territories, to the settlers who organized them into states. The principle of the bill was called by its friends "popular" and by its enemies "squatter sovereignty." Immediately upon the passage of the bill the country was divided into hostile camps.

A fierce struggle began in Kansas between the pro-slavery settlers from Missouri and the free soilers from the North, which attracted the attention of the entire people. This struggle resulted in two distinct constitutions, one excluding and the other including slavery.

The Whig Party now dissolved. An attempt to found an American party proved a failure; and the Democratic party divided into factions. Fierce debates took place in Congress. Chase, and Seward, and Sumner, and Wade astonished the Senate and the South by their opinions and their eloquence, and the anti-Nebraska men of the House emulated their ability and their courage. A violent assault upon Senator Sumner, by a member of the House from South Carolina, startled the entire land; and the publication of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" brought the discussion of slavery into every household of the North. The republican party, made up of anti-slavery Whigs and anti-Nebraska Democrats, was now organized and grew to large proportions in all the Northern states. Its motto was "Free soil for free men," its chief principle, the restriction of slavery forever to existing limits. Yet, the election of 1856 showed that,

1856. in spite of the prevalent excitement, the vast majority of the people shrank from a purely sectional party, and not until the Democratic party was rent in



*A. Lincoln*

(pp. 905.)

twain at Charleston, South Carolina, in 1860, was it possible to elect a Republican to the presidency of the United States. Abraham Lincoln had a majority of the electors, but the combined popular vote of Douglas, Breckenridge and Bell, left him in the minority of a million in a total vote of four million six hundred thousand.\*



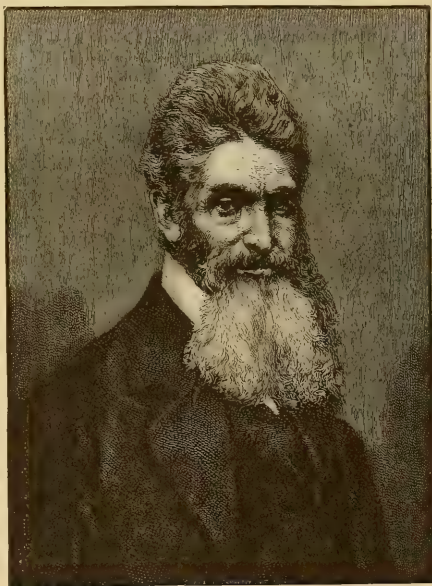
JAMES BUCHANAN.

1856, they proclaimed the constitutionality of secession, and prepared to separate from the Union. Yet a strong love for the Union existed in the South, especially in the border States and in Georgia, and a strong sympathy with the South existed among the northern members of the Democratic and American parties.

President Buchanan had been the choice of Southern men. In the Ostend conference, he had joined with them in their lust for Cuba; later on he had furthered their schemes to conquer Kansas. His Scotch-Irish blood was a gentler fluid than that in the veins of Andrew Jackson, while his cabinet had been made up largely of Southern men, known to be in sympathy with the seceders.

Lincoln, on the other hand, had little experience in public life, and entered almost suddenly upon the greatest task ever devolved upon the ruler of a free people. Many efforts were made to satisfy the excited people of the South, in which the newly-elected President bore a manly part.

§ 798. *The War for the Union.* The Presidential election of 1860 was peculiar and exciting. That Lincoln would be elected few could fail to see; but beyond that all was uncertain. Southern leaders pointing to the Dred Scott decision (which had nationalized slavery) asserted the election of Lincoln to be a violation of the constitution; pointing to the personal liberty statutes of the free States, and to the invasion of John Brown at Harper's Ferry, they declared the North to be bent upon the destruction of their institutions, i. e. slavery; relying upon the Kentucky resolutions, which had been made a part of the Democratic platform in



JOHN BROWN.

But South Carolina hastened to pass an

\* The popular vote was as follows:

Lincoln 1,817,610.  
Douglas 1,291,514.  
Breckenridge, 850,022.  
Bell, 646,124.



**Dec. 20, 1860.** Ordinance of Secession, on December 20, 1860, the language of which is sufficient to determine forever the relation of negro slavery to the civil war. Secessionists were of three classes: (1) Those who desired to destroy the Federal Union; (2) those who expected to make better terms out of the Union than in it; and (3) those who believed themselves bound to go with their States, though personally opposed to secession. Under the influence of the former, in January, 1861, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and Louisiana seceded. Texas followed the next month.

Delegates were appointed to a convention which met at Montgomery, Alabama, and framed a constitution for the Confederate States of America, which was adopted

**Feb. 4, 1861.** February 4, 1861. A comparison of this document with the Constitution of the United States, is likewise sufficient to determine how far negro slavery was the cause of the war.

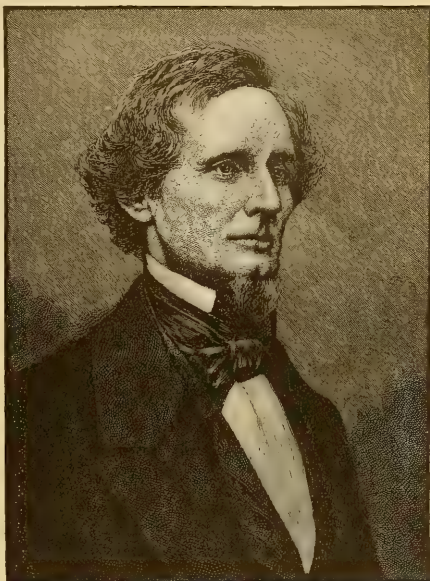
Directly the States seceded, the State authorities seized the forts and custom houses; in a word, the property of the Federal Union. Their senators and representatives withdrew from Congress; many officers resigned from the army and navy. Meanwhile Buchanan and his attorney-general, Black, had made a great discovery. Secession they found to be illegal, but the coercion of a State to be also illegal. Nevertheless, such Democrats as Cass and Stanton, who entered the cabinet to fill the places of the seceders, determined to send supplies to Fort Sumter, in Charles-

**Jan. 9, 1861.** ton harbor. The "Star of the West," however, could not land for hostile batteries, and Fort Sumter was abandoned to the drift of circumstances.

§ 799. Lincoln reached Washington late in February, changing his route to escape assassination. On the fourth of March he delivered his inaugural address, for which the people of the country were waiting in multitudes, feverishly impatient to know his policy. Zealots were disappointed, but wiser men recognized a tranquil strength, a calm invincible purpose, in the quiet periods and the lucid reasoning of this first inaugural. Suddenly, just as men began to hope for some escape, Fort Sumter was attacked, and compelled to surrender. The war had begun. President Lincoln

**April 15.** called immediately for seventy-five thousand volunteers; a great cry went through the North, and recruits streamed in from every section. But when a

**April 19.** Massachusetts regiment marched through Baltimore, to the defence of Washington, it was assaulted by a mob. The capital of the nation was in imminent peril.



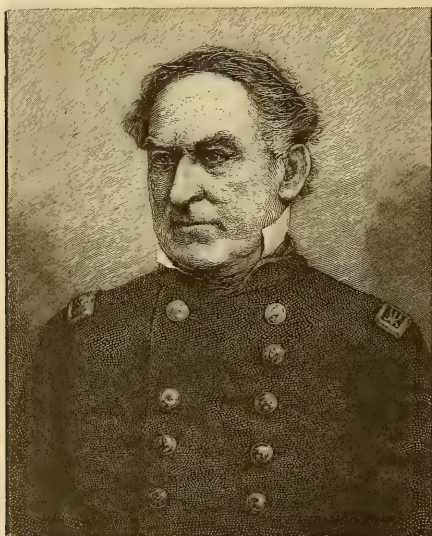
JEFFERSON DAVIS

Jefferson Davis, the President of the Confederate States, promptly called for men, and they offered themselves with eager courage. North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas next seceded and joined the Confederacy, and Virginia soon followed. Davis commissioned privateers; Lincoln proclaimed a blockade. Great Britain recognized the Confederate States as belligerents; other nations soon did the same. When Virginia seceded, Richmond became the capital of the Confederacy, and the *struggle for the possession of the Potomac* then began. General Scott, though a Virginian, refused to abandon the Union, and remained in command of the army.

In July, General George B. McClellan drove the Confederate forces from West Virginia, which soon organized into a separate State. These



GENERAL GEORGE H. THOMAS.



ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT.

successes intoxicated the editors of the North, who clamored for a crushing victory. The Union army, under

**July 21.** General McDowell, sought one at Bull Run, where it defeated Beauregard; but Patterson, having failed to detain the troops of Johnston in the Shenandoah Valley, they arrived in time to rout McDowell's men, and drive them panic-stricken back to Washington.

Scott, grown too old for such a task, now made room for McClellan,

**Aug. 20.** who organized the famous Army of the Potomac. No forward movement was made, however, until October, when the disaster of Ball's Bluff deepened the anxiety caused by Bull Run.

§ 800. *The Struggle for the Mississippi Valley.* Fort Henry on the Tennessee, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland river, were two

strong forts held by Confederate soldiers. The line of the Confederates extended  
**1862.** through southern Kentucky and into northern Tennessee, and was

commanded by Albert Sidney Johnston. Grant was at Cairo (the junction of the Ohio with the Mississippi), commanding fifteen thousand Union men. Buell had a hundred thousand men scattered in many divisions through Kentucky. Gen. George H. Thomas, a loyal

**Jan. 19.** Virginian, attacked the Confederates with a portion of Buell's forces, at Mill Spring, Kentucky, and drove them into Tennessee. Commander Foote carried his fleet of gunboats up the river to Fort Henry, and captured

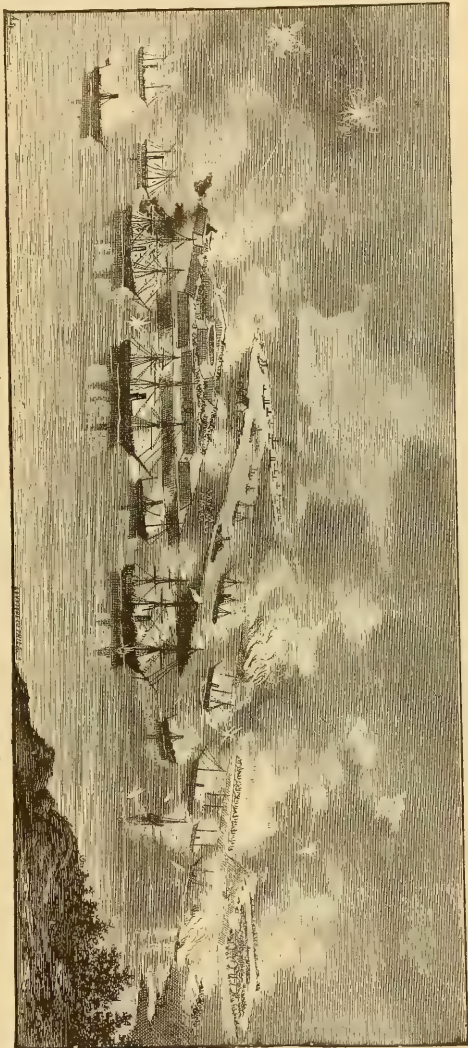
**Feb. 6.** it, before Grant could reach it from Cairo. But pushing on to Fort Donelson Grant, after a desperate

**Feb. 16.** fight, forced Buckner to surrender an army of nine thousand men. Nashville was now occupied by Union troops, and Andrew Johnson appointed military governor of the State. Grant then encamped at Pittsburgh Landing, or Shiloh, on the Tennessee river, close to the corners of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama. Hither

**April 6-7.** Johnston followed and surprised him. But the gun-boats gave his forces time to rally; Buell arrived with fresh troops toward evening; Johnston was killed in the fight, and the Confederates were driven from the field. The losses on both sides were terrible, each side losing one-fourth of the men engaged.

General Halleck now took command of the Union forces, and forced Beauregard to evacuate Corinth, Mississippi.

FARRAGUT'S FLEET TASSING FORTS JACKSON AND ST. PHILIP

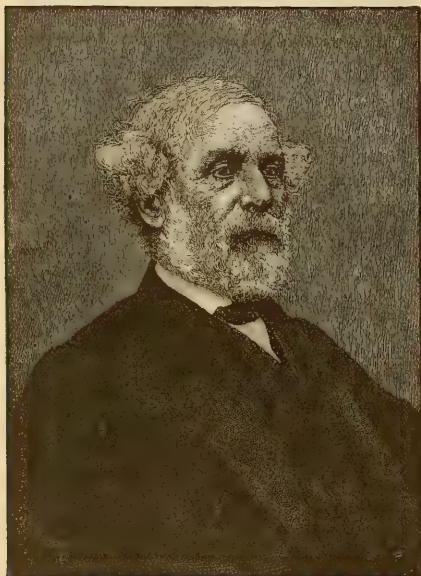




General Bragg then marched northward to Kentucky, fought with Buell at Perryville, and returning, fortified himself at Murfreesboro, near Nashville. General Rosecrans set out to attack the place, but met Bragg on the way. Three days the bloody strife endured; for this battle of Stone River was among the fiercest of the war. Meanwhile the Union gun-boats kept the Mississippi clear as far south as

**April 7.** Vicksburg; not, however, until they had conquered Island No. 10, where the Confederates made a desperate resistance, lasting for a month.

Commodore David Farragut had sailed from Hampton Roads in February, 1862. General Butler, with fifteen thousand men, went with him. The troops were landed at Ship Island, but Farragut determined to force his way up the river to New Orleans.



ROBERT E. LEE.

His fleet consisted of thirteen vessels; each went forward fighting for itself, silencing forts and destroying the ships of the enemy as best it could. They started at two o'clock in the morn-

**April 23-25.** ing of April 23rd, and New Orleans surrendered on the 25th. The Union navy was now in possession of the Mississippi river, for the iron-clad ram Arkansas, built especially to destroy the fleet of Farragut, was destroyed near Baton Rouge, and the last hope of the enemy buried in the waters.

**May 11.** And the gunboats sailing south met the victorious ships of Farragut as they pushed toward Vicksburg.

§ 801. *The Struggle for the Potomac.* McClellan, with an army of two hundred thousand men, moved to the **1862.** peninsula between the York and the James rivers. McDowell was stationed at Fredericksburg to cover Washington, while General Banks marched up the Valley of the Shenandoah.

The Confederates, under General Joseph E. Johnston, thereupon moved from Manassas Junction to the Peninsula, so as to cover Richmond.

Yorktown lay in McClellan's path; it was besieged and taken in May, 1862, the

**May 3.** Confederates retiring to their intrenchments close to Richmond. McClellan then divided his army so as to unite with McDowell at Fredericksburg, while the gunboats of the Union controlled the River James almost to the Confederate capital.

Between the two divisions of McClellan's army ran the Chickahominy creek. The May rains swelled this creek to a river, and converted the country to a swamp. Johnston seized his chance. He attacked the weaker section of the Union army, the

**June 1.** section nearest Richmond, at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks. But he was

himself badly wounded, and his army worsted. General Robert E. Lee now took command. Lee had "gone with his State" after a severe mental struggle. He graduated at West Point, served in Mexico, and loved the Union. But state sovereignty controlled him, and made him the servant of a doomed cause. His first move was to detach McDowell from McClellan. This he did by sending Jackson to the Shenandoah, with orders to chase Banks to the Potomac and to threaten Washington. Jackson,

**June 17.** the most impetuous soldier of the South, the idolized "Stonewall" of his soldiers, executed his orders with splendid energy. As a consequence McDowell was ordered back to Washington.

Lee next pounced upon McClellan, driving him to the James river, fighting the battles of Savage Station on the 29th

**Seven Days' of June, and Mal-**

**Fighting, vern Hill on the 1st**

**June 25-July 1.** of July. This was described by McClellan as a "change of base;" a phrase that concealed a great disaster. For though Lee's attacks were repulsed, the Union campaign had broken down completely.

Meanwhile General John Pope made his "headquarters in his saddle," in command of the army that covered Washington. In a second

**Aug. 30-Sept. 1.** Bull Run battle, Stonewall Jackson routed completely the commander, who had published beforehand, that he had "no lines of retreat." His soldiers found some for themselves, and gathered together finally at Washington. McClellan was now ordered to bring his army back by water which he did in September.

Lee then crossed the Potomac and started for Baltimore. McClel-

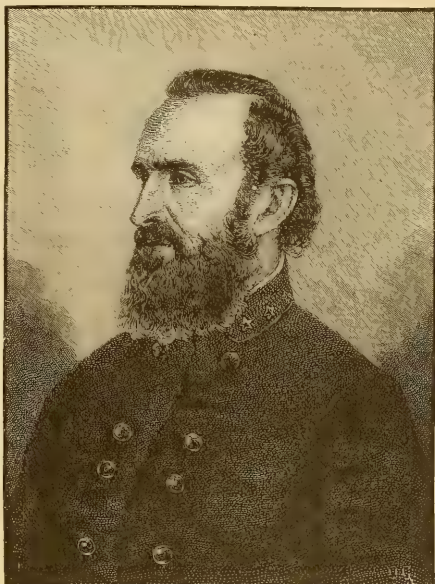
**Sept. 17.** lan intercepted him and forced him to the mountains. Jackson mean-

**Sept. 15.** while captured Harper's Ferry with twelve thousand men and plenty of supplies.

McClellan marched his men across the mountains and forced Lee to a fight at **1862.** Antietam creek, near Sharpsburg. After the battle, which was furious and destructive, Lee recrossed the Potomac. President Lincoln, at this juncture, is-

**Sept. 22.** sued his first Emancipation Proclamation. It was a notice that, unless the seceding states returned to the Union, all slaves would be declared free on the 1st of January, 1863.

Shortly afterward, McClellan was superseded by General Burnside, who attempted



STONEWALL JACKSON.

**Dec. 13.** in December to storm the hills of Fredericksburg, a disastrous undertaking that issued in a terrible repulse. General Hooker next took

**May 5.** command, and after some months fought Lee at Chancellorsville. The

Union forces lost the battle, but Lee lost "Stonewall" Jackson, whom he named his strong right arm. Jackson's tragic fate (he was killed by his own men blundering in the dark) hovered over Lee's army like an evil omen. For the presence of Stonewall Jackson had seemed to sanctify their cause, while his success filled them with the belief that the God in whom their general trusted, would not suffer them to be put to shame.

**May 10.** His death at their own hands therefore smote them like a divine judgment; they lost not only their invincible commander, but with him, their faith in the

invincibility of their cause. But Lee moved around the army of Hooker and started for the North. Consternation seized the people of Philadelphia and New York. Washington was hastily covered by Hooker's men, and then a new commander,

**June 27.** George G. Meade was given to lead them into Pennsylvania. Lee marched to Chambersburg in Pennsylvania, thence eastward to Gettysburg, where, after three days

**July 1-2-3.** desperate struggle in the decisive battle of the war, he was utterly defeated. On the night of July 3rd, 1863, his routed army returned to Virginia, never to fight on northern soil again.

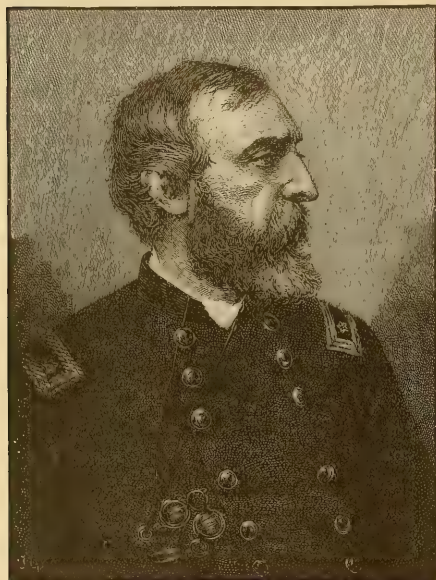
§ 802. *The Struggle for the Mississippi Valley.* The Mississippi river was fortified by the Confederates at Vicksburg and Port Hudson.

**May 18.** Grant moved his troops down the west bank of the river, and first attempted to isolate Vicksburg by a canal through the great

bend. This plan however failed. He then moved to the south, and ferried his men in gunboats to the Vicksburg side of the river. Sherman meanwhile made a feint north of the city along the Yazoo. Having crossed the river, Grant marched toward Jackson, Miss., fighting as he went. He forced himself thus between two Confederate armies, commanded respectively by Pemberton and Joseph E. Johnston. The former was driven into Vicksburg, the latter back to Jackson. Having accomplished this, he

**July 4.** united with Sherman and squeezed Pemberton into surrender. Vicksburg, with thirty-seven thousand men, was given up on the 4th of July, 1863.

Port Hudson surrendered to Banks, who had succeeded General Butler at New Orleans, within a week. Thus the Confederacy was rent in twain.



GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE.



Bragg, after the bloody but decisive battle of Murfreesboro, retired to Chattanooga, and thence to Chickamauga. Thither he was pursued by Rosecrans, but the

BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.



Union army was defeated, and would have been annihilated, but for General Thomas  
*Sept. 19, 20.* and his invincible columns. Shut up in Chattanooga, the Union forces  
 were almost starved, when Grant arrived to take command. Hooker brought rein-

forcements from the east. Sherman joined him also, and here gathered rapidly a force sufficient for a daring enterprise.

From Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, each half a mile high, the Confederates breathed defiance. But Grant's men fought their way to

Nov. 24, 25. the heights above the clouds, driving the Confederates before them. Bragg retreated into Georgia, and Longstreet, who had been besieging Knoxville, returned across the mountains to Virginia.

§ 803. *The Struggle for the Atlantic Coast.* The war began in Charleston Harbor. "Cotton is king!" cried the South, hoping to hold the coast, and to procure the help of foreign powers. The Federal government at once declared a blockade, and pro-

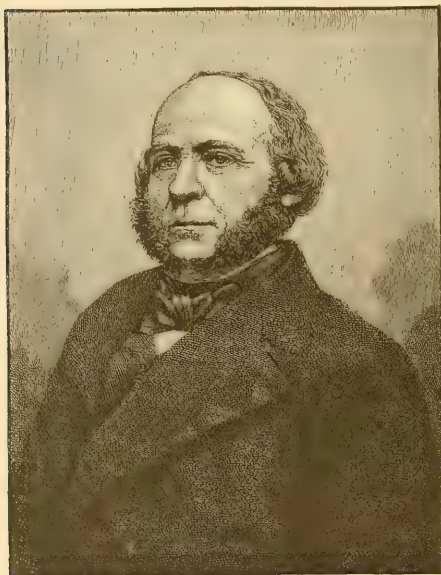


ULYSSES S. GRANT.

ceeded to capture the strongholds of the South. In August, 1861, Hatteras Inlet and Fort Hatteras

Aug. 20, 1861. were captured by a joint expedition under Commodore Stringham and General Butler. In the following November Port Royal and the islands between Charleston and Savannah fell into the hands of Commodore Dupont.

Ship island, at the mouth of the Mississippi river, had been already taken two months before. But the Confederates expected great things of their cruiser, *Merrimac*, a powerful iron-clad, which sailed into Hampton Roads, the 8th of March, 1862. With this cruiser they hoped, not only to place the cities of the sea-coast at their mercy, but to end the war right speedily. Nor were their hopes ill-founded. Hardly had the monster entered Hampton Roads, when she attacked and sunk the *Cumberland*, and as night came



JOHN ERICSSON.

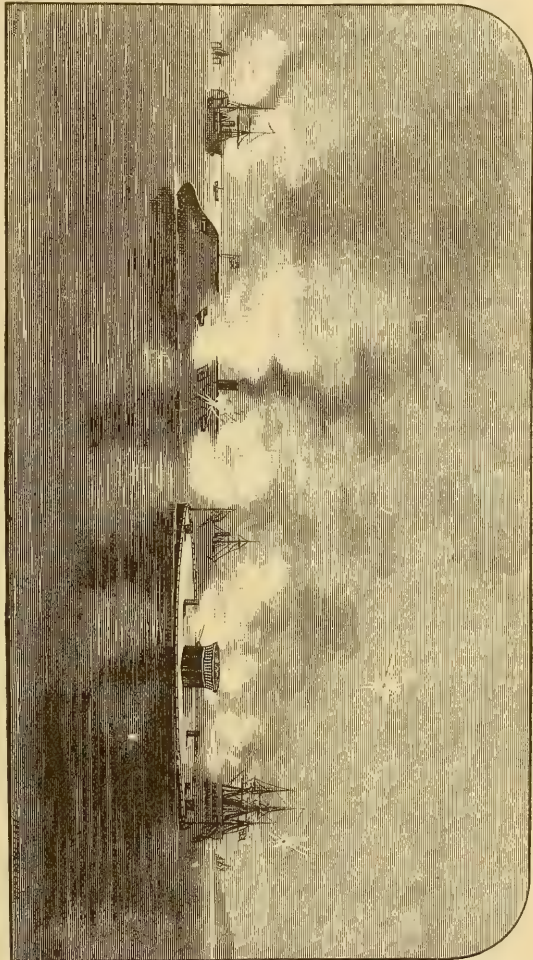
on, four other splendid ships of war lay helpless before her. But the next morning, when the Merrimac returned from Norfolk to complete her conquest, a queer little creature, looking like "a cheese box on a raft," began to fire at her. The "Moni-

*March 8, 9, 10,* tor," for

*1862.*

that was the name of John Ericsson's strange craft, seemed to be "full of guns," and the Merrimac's officer reported, "after two hours' firing, I did her as much damage as by snapping my thumb at her every two minutes and a half." The "cheese box" had saved the Union. The Merrimac retired to Norfolk, and was afterward destroyed, to prevent her falling into Union hands. Other iron-clads were built for the defence of the Atlantic harbors, and cruisers were equipped in England to prey upon the commerce of the loyal States. But the blockade was maintained strictly enough to prevent a hostile declaration from foreign powers, though England and France were importuned to declare it void. President Lincoln, anxious to

THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC.

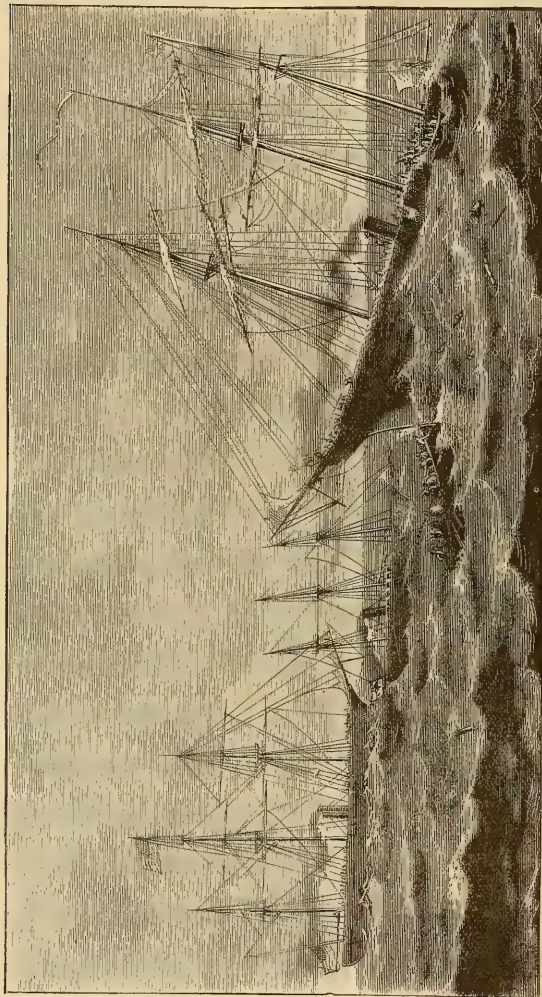


*Sept. 1863.* reduce Charleston, sent against it a fleet of iron-clads, but without result. It was next besieged by General Gilmore, assisted by iron-clads and gun-boats.

Still the city held out. The Atlanta, however, an ironclad built for the defence of Charleston and Savannah, was captured by the monitor, Weehawken, after a few



minutes firing. While Charleston was blockaded, Mobile, Alabama, and Wilmington, North Carolina, were practically open. It was determined, if possible, to close them.



SINKING OF THE ALABAMA BY THE KEARSARGE.

Farragut fought his way through the torpedoed and gun-boats, and passed the forts

**Aug. 5 1864.** of Mobile harbor. He then attacked and captured with his wooden ships the iron-clad Tennessee. The city did not surrender, but the port was closed. Admiral Porter was not so successful in attacking Fort Fisher. General Butler had gone along with a much vaunted powder-boat; but the expedition failed. General Terry, however, captured the fort soon after, and Wilmington surrendered the next month. Mean-

**June 15, 1864.** while the Alabama had been sunk by the Kearsarge, not far from Cherbourg, France; and the Florida captured in Bahia by the *Wachusett*. The Georgia

**June 19, 1864.** was sold to prevent capture, but the Niagara captured her notwithstanding. With Charleston closely blockaded, the Con-

federate iron-clads ruined, and the Anglo-Confederate cruisers destroyed, the Union was supreme along the Atlantic coast and the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. For Galveston alone remained to be blockaded.



FARRAGUT ENTERS MOBILE BAY.

§ 804. *The Struggle for the Potomac. (Concluded.)* Lee's army, sixty-two thousand strong, held the Rapidan river. Grant, whose successes at Vicksburg and Chattanooga had made him famous, was now made, by President Lincoln, commander of all the Union armies. Leaving Sherman in the west, he himself, went East, taking Sheridan with him. The Army of the Potomac numbered, when he reached it, one hundred and twenty thousand men. He had never led it before, nor had he ever confronted General Lee. The final struggle was at hand. Sherman had been instructed to operate in concert with the Army of the Potomac, in fact to move on the same day. Johnston, who commanded the Confederates in the West, must be kept too busy to help his comrades in the East.

Grant sent Butler up the James river to attack Richmond from the neighborhood



GENERAL WM. T. SHERMAN.

of Petersburg. Sigel and Hunter, marching simultaneously up the Shenandoah Valley to menace the Confederate capital from Lynchburg, he himself, with the main army, undertook to force his way to Richmond, through the Wilderness. The Wilderness is a tangled swamp intersected with creeks. Lee had fortified

*May 1864.* it at every available spot. For two weeks he fought Grant stubbornly, inflicting upon him frightful losses. Nevertheless, Grant "fought it out on this line, though it took all

*June 3.* summer." He flanked and forced Lee to Cold Harbor, where he attempted to carry Lee's defences by assault, but met a terrible repulse. Meanwhile Butler had been "bottled up" near Petersburg, and Sigel and Hunter defeated and driven from the Shenandoah. Early was then despatched by Lee to attack Washington. The defences of the capital were too strong, but he frightened the authorities. Grant,

*July 12-13.* however, would not relax his grip. He had crossed the James river

*June 15.* to attack Richmond from the south. This brought him in front of Petersburg. A line of fortifications, extending to the north of Richmond, and defended by sixty thousand Confederate veterans, blocked his way to the Confederate capital.

*June 18.* One attempt only was made to storm this line. A mine was exploded successfully, but the assault, from which so much was expected, failed utterly. Grant however, pushed slowly but surely along to the southwest of these lines, threatening Lee's railroad communications, until he reached a stream called Hatcher's Run. There he halted, for Sheridan was now to strike the final blow. This gallant soldier had been sent to the Shenandoah Valley, where he rescued the victory of Winchester from

*Sept. 19.* the jaws of defeat, driving Early up the valley before him. At Lynchburg he turned to the east and joined Grant, destroying canals and railroad bridges,



and cutting off Lee's supplies. He then moved across Hatcher's Run to Five Forks,

**April 2, 1865.** threatening to shut the Confederates in. Lee was helpless; his army was too feeble to repel the danger. Grant then ordered his whole line to advance, and Lee retreated to Appomatox Court House. Richmond was abandoned, and the Confederate government fled precipitately southward. Before Lee could reach Lynchburg, Sheridan had "pushed things;" getting in between him and Johnston, whom he

**April 9, 1865.** hoped to join. His retreat cut off, he surrendered his hungry and exhausted army on the 9th of April, 1865.

Grant exacted no hard terms. The troops, promising to bear arms no longer against the United States, were given their horses to do their spring plowing, and sent to their homes. "I felt like anything," wrote General Grant, "rather than rejoicing over the downfall of a foe who had fought so long and valiantly." In a few words, Lee bade adieu to his army after the surrender. He told his brave men, "to return to their homes and become worthy citizens."

§ 805. *Sherman and Thomas.* All eyes were now turned to Gen. Johnston, eager to know what he would do; for the struggle in the West had been full of incident, and was not yet over. Sherman had driven his antagonist southward to Atlanta, Georgia. Incensed at his retreat, Davis removed Johnston, and appointed Hood to take his place. Hood preferred to fight at all hazards. Johnston fought only where there was a chance to win. Hood soon fought himself out of Atlanta,

**Sept. 2, 1864.** and Sherman entered in. Thereupon the fighting General pushed northward into Tennessee.

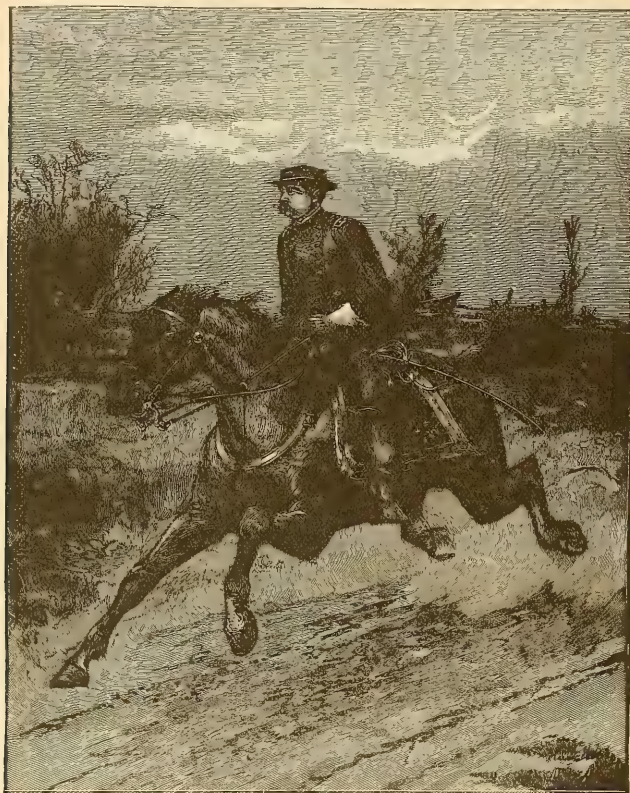
Sherman, thinking Thomas strong enough to take care of Hood and Tennessee also, pushed boldly into Georgia, no one knowing just whither he had gone. But when he

**Dec. 21.** gave Savannah as a Christmas gift to the nation, men learned with astonishment of his march through Georgia. In four columns his army had covered a strip of country sixty miles wide, between the Savannah and Ogeechee rivers. His men lived upon the country, and left a waste behind them; railroads were destroyed bridges burned, and, after a siege of eight days, Savannah was captured. Meanwhile fighting General Hood had reached Nashville, Tennessee, and begun a siege. Thomas, who, like Johnston, preferred to win when he fought, was in no hurry to attack him; but having finished his preparations, he annihilated Hood's army in the completest



GENERAL PHIL. H. SHERIDAN.

**Dec. 14-16.** victory of the war. Johnston now returned to gather an army if he could, and to throw himself across the path of Sherman, marching northward. He got together forty thousand men, and attacked the Union army at Goldsboro, North Carolina. Sherman defeated him with difficulty, and the two armies were confronting each other, when the news of Lee's surrender reached them. Then Sherman occupied



SHERIDAN'S RIDE FROM WINCHESTER.

**April 26, 1865.** Raleigh and Johnston surrendered. The next month the Confederates everywhere laid down their arms and the war was over.

§ 806. *Financial Policy.* War is an expensive business. How to raise the money needed perplexed the brains of Mr. Chase, the Union secretary of the treasury. Treasury notes of various kinds were issued, some bearing interest, others not. These were made a legal tender for all debts except custom duties. These notes were

promises to pay "dollars on demand" but as "gold dollars" were not paid when demanded, gold dollars soon commanded a premium, which fluctuated with the fortunes of the war. It was next determined to borrow money by the sale of bonds. These bonds were sold for paper money, but made payable in coin. If the Union survived the struggle, they were a fine investment, bringing the buyer almost double what he paid for them. But Mr. Chase went further, believing it necessary to enlist the capitalists of the country, heart and soul, in the struggle. He proposed the system of

**Feb. 25, 1863.** national banks. These were allowed to issue bank notes, secured by national bonds deposited at Washington. The circulation of the state banks was taxed out of existence. At a single stroke, the variegated and complicated paper money system, prevailing before the war, vanished from our commerce, and a currency was furnished, which, when brought to par with gold, would be better than any paper money in the world. During the four years of the war, the Union spent \$3,500,000,000 in its prosecution. The expenses of the Confederacy cannot be accurately estimated.

§807. *Foreign Policy.* "One job is enough at a time," said Mr. Lincoln; and to this policy he steadily adhered throughout the war. When Captain Wilkes stopped the Trent, a British mail steamer, and took from her Mason

**Nov. 19, 1861.** and Slidell, two Confederate commissioners, to Europe, Mr. Lincoln sagely remarked that Captain Wilkes had no right, at any rate, to turn his quarter-deck into an admiralty court, and thereupon directed the release of the captives. Great Britain

**Jan. 1, 1862.** had shown great alacrity in recognizing the seceding States as belligerents, and in the Trent affair, seemed over eager to make trouble. France however, was the real enemy of the United States. For although a powerful feeling against the Union existed in England, Richard Cobden, John Bright, John Stuart Mill and others argued bravely the Federal cause, and the operatives of Lancashire and Yorkshire refused, in spite of their suffering from the cotton famine, to ally themselves with the cause of slavery. Henry Ward Beecher, in a series of magnificent speeches, in various English cities, explained the conflict to the British public, so that no British ministry ventured to follow the suggestions of Napoleon. Russia promptly declined his pro-

**Nov. 8, 1862.** posal to mediate, taking which hint, Earl Russell declined it also. The Anglo-Confederate cruisers were of course exasperating, and Mr. Lincoln instructed

**Nov. 13.** Mr. Adams, minister to England, to speak decidedly, which produced the detention of two steam rams, just ready to escape from Liverpool. When Napo-

**Oct. 31, 1863.** leon sent his troops to Mexico to place Maximilian on the throne, Mr.



SALMON P. CHASE.



Lincoln took notice of it as an unfriendly act, but went no further at that time. But the French, having no shipbuilders, were astute enough to permit no iron-clads to be fitted out for the Confederate service at any of their ports.

§ 808. *Internal Policy.* Mr. Lincoln had been elected by a divided Northern vote. From the outset, he was painfully conscious of the latent sympathy for the Southern people, diffused throughout the loyal States. And the border States were difficult to hold. Opposition to "the war for the negro" was heard in many places, and during the dark days of 1862, developed into dangerous strength. The President, though supported at the outset by many influential Democrats, like Cushing, Stanton, Reverdy and Andrew Johnson, Douglas, Logan, Dickinson, Dix, and countless others, soon found himself opposed by three powerful elements, those who desired the success of the South, those who believed the war a foredoomed failure, and those who regarded

him as too slow for so great a crisis.

When taxes were increased, and high tariff revived, and when drafts were ordered to fill up the rapidly depleted armies, this opposition grew rapidly. In 1862 New York and several other States gave large majorities against the Republican party, and in 1863

*July 13-16, 1863.* riots to prevent the draft broke out in New York City. The suspension of the Habeas Corpus was another ground of offence; likewise the suppression of sundry newspapers, and the arrest and confinement of suspected citizens by military authority. The opposition combined and culminated in the nomination of General McClellan for president by the Democratic convention that met at Chicago, in 1864.

On the other hand, no little dissatis-



ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

faction with Mr. Lincoln existed in his own party. The Emancipation Proclamation put an end to much of this. But the resignation of Mr. Chase in July, 1864, marked the conclusion of an intrigue to push him into Mr. Lincoln's place. Yet in November, 1864, the president was re-elected. His message to Congress the following December was considered very bold. His meeting with Alexander Stephens, the Confederate vice-president, at Hampton Roads, startled the country with the prospect of peace, and his second inaugural stirred the people to unwonted depths of feeling. In sublime and solemn words the great leader called upon the nation "to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and orphans, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations." But his work was

*April 14, 1865.* already finished. As he sat in the private box of Ford's theatre, in Washington, trying to forget the anxieties and the triumphs of the hour, John Wilkes

Booth crept to his side, shot him through the head, then leaped upon the stage shouting, "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" and escaped to Maryland. *Sic semper tyrannis!* How insanely blind is human hate! The gentlest heart that ever beat in human breast,—magnanimous, patient, forgiving, forbearing, patriotic Lincoln, to be murdered with such a cry! He who had "malice toward none, and charity toward all," whose only "firmness was in the right as God gave him to see the right." Honest without hypocrisy, religious without bigotry or cant, full of strange resources and of high resolves, far-seeing but humble, majestic in his sublimer moments as though under the guidance of an unseen hand, yet child-like, uncouth, and even coarse, when the stress of stern occasion left him free. Much hated, he himself indulged no rancor. His sharpest utterance had no sting but truth, and even that was softened by quaint pathos, and a gleaming humor. Who can quote from him a bitter or a biting word? Perhaps he was the first typical American. If so, then few have reached the type. Rather let us see in him what he was, a noble nature redeemed from its dross, and transfigured by a great purpose and a holy responsibility. A man, who, from strange surroundings, rose far above the level of his contemporaries, and held nobly to an ideal which attracts the faith of few and the mockery of many. The secret of his unique nature lies with God; He only knows how blood and circumstance, conscience and inspiration, contact with noble thought, and the presence of divine opportunity, combined to make him at once the most heroic and the most lovable figure of a mighty period! When his countrymen have grown more like him, it will be time enough to call him the typical American.

§ 809. "The actual expenditures of the government of the United States in putting down the rebellion are, of course, a matter of record on the books of the treasury; but there were various obligations indirectly chargeable to the war which cannot be so accurately ascertained. It is impossible also to give even an estimate of the amount of money expended by the South in its efforts to separate itself from the Union. From 1861 to 1866 the expenditures on account of the army amounted to \$3,023,213,064.20; from 1866 until it was brought down to a peace basis in 1871 about \$200,000,000 more was spent; and on account of the navy \$326,650,068.58 was spent, which sums combined make a total of \$3,549,873,132 and represents what was paid out for strictly military purposes. To this should be added an unknown quantity, to represent the cost of sustaining the increased civil establishment that was made necessary by the war, perhaps \$100,000,000 for the five years. This civil establishment has never been reduced. There are more than one hundred men still at work in the treasury, settling up accounts of paymasters, quartermasters and commissaries of the volunteer army. Then the interest on the money borrowed by the government to carry on the war should be added, and that is a very large item.

"The average annual interest charge on the public debt, for a dozen years before the war was about \$2,000,000. It increased rapidly during the Buchanan administration, until in 1860 it amounted to a little over \$3,000,000. The total amount of the public debt on July 1, 1861, when the war may be said to have commenced, was \$87,718,660. The highest point reached by the public debt since was \$2,884,649,626, in 1865. Since July 1, 1861, we have paid as interest on the debt the stupendous sum of \$2,536,097,091.04. The highest payment in any one year was \$150,977,697 in 1865, and the lowest payment was \$22,893,883 in 1892. The amount of the public debt on

July 1, 1893, was \$1,545,985,686.13; or, deducting the cash in the treasury at that time, the outstanding obligations of the United States amounted to the sum of \$838,969,475.

"To the other expenditures made necessary by the war should be added also the premiums paid for loans and the purchase of bonds by the government from 1860 to the present date, which amount to a total of \$119,863,386.71.

"Then comes the enormous item of pensions. In 1860 the pension roll amounted to a little more than \$1,000,000, paid to the veterans of the Revolutionary war, the war of 1812, the Mexican war, and various Indian wars. In 1862 it dropped to \$850,000 because the payments to pensioners in the rebellious States had ceased. Then the annual payments on this account began to mount up again. In 1865 they were over \$16,000,000, and continued to increase until 1893, when the

sum of \$159,357,557.87 was paid by a grateful government to its defenders. It is expected that the expenditures on this account will continue to grow for some years, but by the end of the century will commence rapidly to fall off, as the veterans tumble into their graves. The total amount of money paid for pensions from the beginning of the war to July 1, 1893, was \$1,608,209,614.

"It is impossible to ascertain and it is useless to estimate the amount of money that was paid for bounties and other purposes by states, cities, counties and towns to encourage and sustain the Union army. It is also impossible to give the amounts expended by the various States in equipping troops. But the visible expenditures of the general government, including the army, navy, pensions, the interest on the public debt and premiums paid, amount to a grand total of \$7,914,033,223." \*



STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

§ 810. *Reconstruction.* The death of Lincoln stunned the nation and startled the world. And when it became known that Secretary Seward was dangerously wounded, and that the conspiracy had contemplated the destruction of all the leading officers of the government, the excitement grew deep and dangerous. The few voices that ventured to exult in the dastardly deed hushed instantly; and for a while a desperate bitterness filled the hearts of thousands.

The blow that took away the President opened afresh the wounds in hundreds of homes. A hundred thousand Union soldiers had perished on the field, and of their injuries. Twice as many had died of disease and languished away in prisons. And among these victims were the noblest of the generation. Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Mr. Lincoln, though a Southern man, had been outspoken and heroic in his

\* W. E. Curtis, in the Chicago Record.



devotion to the Union. But his inaugural speech as vice-president had disconcerted his friends, and his peculiarities of temper and of mind soon provoked opposition to his policy as president.

The seceded states were disorganized completely. It was (so the sword had decided) rebellion to secede; nevertheless, they had in fact seceded and levied war against the United States. Were there any States left? Had they not destroyed themselves? If, on the other hand, they were indestructible entities, were they punishable entities? Or could punishment be inflicted upon individuals only?

These States, moreover, were the scenes of poverty and suffering. The money of the Confederacy had become rapidly and utterly worthless; the barns were bare of food, and the fields lay waste; the lands had lost their value, and their slaves had ceased to be property; the freedmen had no legal status, and the whites were as yet uncertain of their fate.

§ 811. President Lincoln had, before his death, established provisional governments in Tennessee, Virginia, Louisiana, and Arkansas. Johnson followed his example. The governors, appointed by the President, convened assemblies elected by the white male citizens, or former voters. To these assemblies, the thirteenth amendment abolishing slavery in the United States, was submitted for ratification. This amendment had been urgently pressed through Congress by Mr. Lincoln, in order to perfect the acts of emancipation. But it had not yet been adopted by the various States. It became, however, a part of the constitution in December, 1865. In addition to this, the seceding States were required to declare void the ordinances of secession, and to promise not to pay the debts incurred to support the rebellion. To this they all acceded, and Johnson was ready to re-admit them to the Union.



ANDREW JOHNSON.

But Congress demurred. The Republican party insisted upon the exclusion of Confederate leaders from citizenship, and upon the admission of the negroes to equal political rights with the former voters, especially as several of the seceded States had passed laws that seemed like attempts to re-enact slavery. Several acts of Congress embodying this policy—the Freedmen's Bureau bill,—the Civil Rights bill—a bill for the education and protection of the freedmen—were vetoed by the President. The man, who had shown himself implacable against those convicted of the murder of Lincoln, was equally implacable against the men who insisted upon citizenship for the emancipated slaves. These vetoed acts were passed by Congress notwithstanding. Military governors were accordingly appointed, and reconstruction proceeded under  
 1868. bayonet rule. Virginia and Georgia however did not yield, until the ratification of the fourteenth amendment made further resistance futile.

§ 812. The effects of these acts were not what the authors of them anticipated, although a bitter quarrel with the President had been foreseen and welcomed. The tenure of office act, passed in 1867, provided that the president must first ask and procure the consent of the Senate, before removing important office-holders. Johnson,  
 1868. believing the act unconstitutional, and dissatisfied with Mr. Stanton, the great war secretary of Mr. Lincoln, whose astonishing energy had been of price-

less value to the country, removed him from the cabinet. The President was at once impeached, but as less than two thirds of the Senate voted to sustain the charges, he was, after a long trial, acquitted.

General Grant accepted Stanton's place, and soon became the conspicuous figure of the country. In 1868 he was nominated for the presidency by the Republicans, and elected by a large majority.

§ 813. As the election turned upon the reconstruction measures of Congress, it looked as if the country had responded to Grant's exhortation, "Let us have peace!" But the end was not yet. A fifteenth amendment was next adopted, forbidding any State to deprive any person of a vote by reason of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." This made, of course, an enormous addition to the voting population, and brought a strain upon Democratic institutions of the severest kind. And it developed two dangerous elements in the Southern States, the Carpet-bagger and the Kuklux. The Carpet-bagger sought to control the negro, and to use him for corrupt ends; the Kuklux, on the other hand, terrorized him and attacked the white



EDWIN M. STANTON.

Republicans. Ultimately, the negroes ceased to vote, or voted with the whites. But this end was reached only after a desperate struggle, in which more than one State government appealed to the President for military support. The Republicans however lost one State after another, and in 1877 the South became "solid" and has remained so ever since.

Not only so. The enfranchisement of the negro increased the number of representatives allotted to the seceding States, and consequently their power in the electoral college. And gradually the cry of "Universal Amnesty and Universal Suffrage," urged so vehemently by Horace Greeley, brought back to political life most of the ancient leaders of the South.

Jefferson Davis remained in prison two years, but was never tried. He and Robert Toombs refused to return to the old flag; but others took the oath of allegiance, and found their way back to places of power in the nation and the state.



CARL SCHURZ.

1865-1867.

These uniting with the Democratic party of the North which survived the war, and grew rapidly stronger during the struggles over reconstruction, have created a political situation in the United States, both peculiar and perilous. The normal condition of our political life requires two parties, not only nearly equal, but equally distributed over the surface of the country. But sectional feeling produces political blindness. The interests of the commonwealth are common interests, and their protection depends upon an interchange of thought, upon mutual understanding, and the promotion of harmony, whereas the present situation tends to perpetuate division and to encourage antagonisms, and to confer enormous power upon a few localities in the North, which are neither the wisest nor the best.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

#### 4. RECENT HISTORY.

§ 814. General Grant began his administration with a conflict, his appointment of the great merchant A. T. Stewart, of New York, provoking violent opposition. This conflict developed into a dangerous schism of his party, when the San Domingo annexation scheme was pressed upon the country. The use of Federal troops to support the unstable governments of Southern States, added to the dissatisfaction, and the power of certain senators in controlling appointments to office, widened the breach between the two sections of the Republicans.



SAMUEL J. TILDEN.

Sumner, Greeley, Schurz, and Fenton led the liberals into open revolt, and organized the convention of 1872, which nominated Greeley for the presidency. One great achievement, though, lifted this first administration of the famous

**1871.** soldier into permanent history, the treaty of Washington. This treaty between Great Britain and the United States referred all disputes between the two nations to courts of arbitration. The Alabama question, most difficult of all, was settled in

**1872.** favor of the United States, Great Britain paying \$15,000,000 for the damage done by the Anglo-Confederate cruisers.

The Northwestern boundary question was also decided against Great Britain by the Emperor of Germany, to whom it was referred. In the matter of the fisheries, however, the decision was against the United States. Greeley and Brown, the candidates of the Liberal Republicans, were accepted by the Democratic leaders in convention, but the rank and file of the party supported the ticket without enthusiasm. Grant was re-elected, and Greeley wore away his brain and his life in the excitement of the conflict, and the chagrin of defeat.

§ 815. But the second administration of Grant was a time of financial distress and political reaction. In 1873 a wave of disaster carried down great fortunes, and blighted the prosperity in which the country had rejoiced exultantly. The Northern



Pacific Railroad Company defaulted suddenly, and revealed the hollowness of the railroad building operations going on all over the country. To make the feeling worse, scandals were revealed in Congress and in the cabinet. The Credit Mobilier stock

1873. placed "where it would do the most good" was traced to the hands of leading congressmen; other strange transactions were discovered, and Belknap, the secretary of war, was impeached for bribery. Whiskey rings and rings of

1875. Indian contractors were detected and disclosed, so that the cry for re-



JOHN SHERMAN.

form became clamorous and urgent. Grant declined a nomination for a third term, and General Hayes of Ohio was made the nominee of the Republicans.

The Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden, who had become the most conspicuous figure of their party, by his destruction of the Tweed gang in New York City, and his desperate struggle with the canal ring in the Empire State.

The election was exceedingly close, and issued in an exciting contest that kept the country in excitement for several months. The votes of Florida and Louisiana

1876. were disputed, and yet upon them depended the result. The Senate

was Republican, the House of Representatives was Democratic. Plainly therefore these would not agree. Civil war seemed imminent.

§ 816. In the crisis an electoral commission was created, consisting of five senators, five representatives, and five judges of the Supreme Court. By a strict party vote, the majority of the commission decided that Hayes had been elected. His administration was quiet, clean, and uneventful, excepting that the financial question threw its ominous shadow across the horizon. This question was first brought into prominence by Mr. Pendleton of Ohio, who, early in 1868, had urged the payment of the public debt in legal tender notes, so as to increase the circulating medium of the country. The cry for "more money" began to resound in the land, especially in Ohio. But the enormous production of precious metals in the Pacific States, made them the natural rivals of paper money schemes, and the people began to clamor for the resumption of specie payments. In 1875 the act to resume had been passed, and Mr. Sherman, the secretary of the treasury, determined to make it effective, and in 1879 legal tender notes were exchanged for gold. The Greenbackers, as they called themselves, had grown rapidly in numbers, after the panic of 1873. When anybody is scarce of money, he thinks the nation is; and as the impecunious were numerous from 1873 to 1879, there was a great multitude eager to increase the wealth of the country by increasing the quantity of

1878. circulating medium. But suddenly, in 1878, Mr. Bland, of Missouri, discovered that silver had been demonetized in 1873, and ought now to be remonetized. The apostles of silver soon displaced the prophets of paper. Congress ordered the coinage of \$2,000,000 a month in silver dollars, in a ratio of sixteen to one of gold. President Hayes vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto. This imposed upon the treasury an enormous task. To pay the legal tender notes in gold, and at the same time to keep the silver dollar equal to the gold dollar in value, in the face of a falling market for silver. Nevertheless specie payments were resumed; the national debt refunded at exceedingly low rates of interest; the voice of the Greenbacker died away in the land; and prosperity returned to the farmer, the merchant, and the manufacturer. Yet the advocates of free coinage (or rather the unlimited coinage of silver at a ratio of sixteen to one), were still restless and unhappy. The Warner silver bill was passed in July, 1879, but defeated by the Democrats of the Senate, under the lead of Mr. Bayard. The last message of President Hayes urged emphatically the free coinage of silver dollars at an honest ratio. 1880. that is, putting into the silver dollars a market equivalent for the gold dollar. But that kind of free coinage seemed not to be desired.

§ 817. The election of 1880 made James A. Garfield president, and Chester A. Arthur vice-president of the United States. But quarrels about appointments led to a fierce excitement and strife between the Republican factions of New York, the supporters of Grant and of Blaine, whose favorites had been both defeated for the



THOMAS F. BAYARD.

nomination. When the conflict was fiercest, the President was shot by Guiteau, a dis-  
 1881. appointed office-seeker. Garfield died on the 19th of September, deeply  
 regretted everywhere. His successor ruled amid general prosperity. The public debt  
 was rapidly reduced, and a surplus began to fill the treasury. Crops were enormous  
 and easily marketable; manufactures and commerce flourished. Under these circum-  
 stances the tariff question excited attention. It had entered  
 largely into the struggle of 1880, and in 1883 a tariff com-  
 mission reported in favor of lower duties. Congress  
 adopted their reports, but the tariff reformers were not satis-  
 fied, and demanded greater reductions.

Meanwhile Congress passed an act to reform the civil  
 1883. service. In Jackson's day, offices came to  
 be regarded as the property of the president, to be dis-  
 tributed to his friends; gradually, senators and representa-  
 tives acquired liens upon this patronage, which they com-  
 pelled the president to recognize; but lower down, the  
 party workers obtained a "pull" upon their representatives, the creatures of their  
 political energy, and demanded consideration. Integrity, fitness, patriotic service,  
 availed but little against the man who had a "pull." Civil service reform received  
 the support of able men in both parties, conspicuously, Mr. Pendleton, of Ohio, Mr.  
 Jenckes, of Rhode Island, and Mr. Curtis, of New York. But the practical politician  
 endured it reluctantly in party platforms, and expelled it sedulously from appropria-  
 tion bills at every opportunity.



JAMES A. GARFIELD.



JAMES G. BLAINE.

§ 818. The Panama Canal company, since collapsed, caused a long and eager correspondence between France and the Union. Chili refused to listen to the remonstrances of the United States, and punished Peru with great severity, after conquering her neighbor in armed conflict. But in general, foreign relations were exceedingly tranquil.

Silver dollars were piling up in the vaults of the treasury, nobody preferring them to the paper notes, and the impecunious not having discovered just how to get them to their pockets. No efforts were made, however, in the face of general prosperity to go further with free coinage at sixteen to one, during this administration. For

parties were preparing for a desperate struggle; the Greenbackers had vanished; the Prohibitionist was making himself heard; Republicans and Democrats were alike  
 1884. aware of the value of a few votes, especially in New York, and hence avoided risks, while they combined to increase appropriations.

§ 819. In 1884 Grover Cleveland, of New York, who had been nominated by the



Democratic convention in spite of the vehement opposition of Tammany Hall, defeated James G. Blaine for the presidency, by a few votes in the State of New York. The contest was bitterly personal, perplexed by many cross currents, and illuminated by no great principles on either side.

§ 820. But the administration of Cleveland soon created changes in the political situation. The President demanded a change in the existing tariff system, which he described as "a vicious, inequitable, and illogical source of unnecessary taxation," although he found it impossible to carry all the members of his party with him.

On the other hand, as the people did not care to circulate the silver dollar, silver certificates, based on the idle silver dollars sleeping in the treasury vaults, were issued to the country. The Mormons were disfranchised; the Interstate Commerce bill was passed. This established a commission to regulate the railway traffic between the various States, and to relieve the people of secret and pernicious combinations.



GROVER CLEVELAND.

Mr. Seward had purchased Alaska from Russia for \$7,000,000, in 1867. The seal fisheries of the Behring Sea were found to be exceedingly profitable, and the Canadians refused to be excluded from them. This led to further correspondence with Great Britain. And finally the British minister at Washington meddled foolishly in the Presidential election of 1888,

1888. and at the request of Mr. Cleveland, received his recall.

§ 821. For Mr. Cleveland had been renominated by his party, and the tariff issue made by him accepted, though not with any great moral enthusiasm. Conspicuous among the frigid advocates of his election was Governor Hill of New York; and other leaders were almost or quite as cold. Accordingly, he was defeated by Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, the Republican nominee, under whose administration a positive and aggressive policy at once began.

In foreign affairs the Samoan difficulty with Germany led to a reassertion of the 1898. Monroe doctrine, and a treaty with Germany and England, most popular at the time, but now of somewhat doubtful value. The Behring Sea ques-



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

Chinese immigration was prohibited for a period of twenty years, and the Tenure-of-Office law was repealed. For the first time since the war, men, prominent in the rebellion, became officers of the National government, while 1888. the Dependent Pension bill, which involved an immense expenditure for Union soldiers was vetoed by the President, and finally defeated.

The Canadian fisheries became, in 1887, again the cause 1888. of trouble. American ships were seized quite frequently. Finally a treaty was agreed to by the President, but rejected by the Senate, as altogether too concessive.



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

tion, after long discussion, was referred to a court of arbitration. The murder of  
 1891. Italians, by a mob in New Orleans, led to serious trouble with Italy. But the Italian government receded from peremptory demands, and consented to be appeased.

The most serious difficulty of all, however, occurred with Chili where President Balmaceda and his Congress were engaged in civil war. The United States cruiser, *Baltimore*, lying in the harbor of Valparaiso was attacked by a mob of "Insurgents" or "Congressionals," who killed an officer, and wounded several seamen. Balmaceda had been displaced by the insurgents, and when the United States asked apology and reparation for this outrage on the *Baltimore*, they sent back an insolent reply. The President immediately prepared for war. The Chilian authorities, grown saner by this time, apologized fully, and offered ample satisfaction for the injuries committed. These were accepted, and peaceful relations reestablished.

The Pan-American Congress, which met at Washington, in 1889, made their final report in June, 1890. Ten republics were represented in this body, but its influence upon affairs was hardly noticeable.

§ 822. But the great event of the Harrison administration was the passage of the McKinley tariff bill. This increased duties on one hundred and fifteen articles left them unchanged on two hundred and forty-nine. It enlarged the free list, giving up entirely the revenue for sugar, and giving a bounty to sugar-growers in the South and Southwest. But it provoked a strong reaction, and produced a Democratic Congress in 1890. And now the silver question returned to plague the people.

1891. The Sherman coinage act was passed, requiring the purchase of fifty-four million ounces of silver annually, not for coinage, but for storage and the issue of silver certificates therefore. This, of course, made the United States government the purchaser of a depreciating commodity, and provoked a number of similar schemes to use the nation as a steadier of values. For wheat and, in fact, all sorts of grain were falling in price as rapidly as silver, and if the government could interpose to help the miner, why not relieve the farmer also? Why not store his wheat and issue wheat certificates? Suddenly a new political party was formed, whose storm-centre seemed to be Kansas. It drew largely from the Republicans, and captured that state, and showed great power in the adjoining regions. And from this party proceeded demands for government interference in the business of the country, which indicated, on the one hand, immense distress and discontent among the farming population, and, on the other, that invincible belief in legislative panaceas that characterizes the political movements of recent years all over the world. "If I can only see the Czar, he will set all things right!" says the Russian moujik. "If I can only prevail upon Congress to pass my bill, that will set all things right," says the American voter. But the Czar is not easily found, and Congress grinds out wisdom most exceedingly slow.

§ 823. When therefore Mr. Harrison was re-nominated against his old antagonist—Mr. Cleveland, these forces of discontent combined to bring about a change. The Republicans were defeated as never before in their history, and Mr. Cleveland entered upon a second administration.

But before his inauguration, signs of a coming storm appeared. And hardly was his cabinet appointed, when the storm broke loose. Yet for a while the difficulty in Hawaii absorbed attention. A revolution on the island had deposed

the Queen. Mr. Harrison concluded a treaty of annexation with the provisional government, and sent it to the Senate. This was withdrawn at once by Mr. Cleveland, who sent a special commissioner to investigate the circumstances of the change, and the existing situation. The commissioner reported against the wisdom of annexation; the President coincided with this view, and the government of Hawaii can hardly be accounted stable, although a new constitution has been proclaimed.

But this question was soon overshadowed by financial troubles. The task imposed upon the government, of keeping gold and silver dollars at par, when the intrinsic value of the one was double that of the other, began to prove quite hard. The gold reserve in the treasury steadily decreased. Men grew anxious and ceased to trade. American securities poured across the ocean in a steady stream. Then the rottenness of certain trusts and railroads and banks was disclosed in defaults and suspensions. Money suddenly disappeared from circulation. The ordinary operations of commerce were blocked. Loans could not be negotiated; exchanges stopped.

Congress was asked by the President to repeal the Sherman bill. The House responded with alacrity; the Senate dallied until the disaster was beyond the reach of this or any other legislative remedy. The country was in the throes of a financial crisis.

A tariff bill, framed by Representative Wilson, passed the House of Representatives, but lingered in the Senate. If this had been enacted promptly, no such mischief could have been wrought as followed upon the long delay. Meanwhile the mills were idle, the prices of grain unprecedentedly low, strikes abounded, and idle men marched toward Washington to seek relief.

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§ 824. *Industrial Development.* (1849-1894.) Yet the secret of this condition is to be sought, not in our political, but in our industrial history.

The invention of the telegraph furthered amazingly the development of the railroad, and the discovery of precious metals on the Pacific coast led finally to the trans-

continental railroads. To construct these, the government assisted and gave away vast tracts of land (public). Homestead bills were passed, and settlers enticed into the Western country, wherever railroads penetrated. The agricultural population was thus spread over vast areas, and in many places was absolutely dependent upon a single railroad for access to the markets of the world. The soil was in many places exceedingly fertile, the harvesters, invented by Marsh and improved into the twine-binders by Appleby, made the gathering of crops a holiday task, so that production increased enormously, while the farmer did not always reap the profits of his industry. Even when grain brought high prices at the sea-board, it often sold quite low at the nearest railroad station. Next came the consolidation of railroads, and a few great corporations soon covered the whole land with the network of their tracks, and their influence. Statutes in their interest were passed without difficulty; their power and wealth excited envy; and a reaction began, which led to drastic legislation, that wrought more mischief than it remedied. But the feeling engendered by the strife lived on, even after these statutes were repealed.

§ 825. Meanwhile trusts developed, exciting, at first, surprise and then intense hostility. The discovery of petroleum in Pennsylvania and elsewhere, in 1859, estab-



lished a new and lucrative industry. The price of oil, however, fluctuated extremely, and led to speculation of the wildest sort. A few shrewd men combined to buy up all the wells, and thus control the price. These constituted the Standard Oil trust, first, most powerful, and parent of them all. Their example spread with exceeding rapidity, and combinations to control prices confronted the buyer everywhere, and the seller too. For having acquired control of the market, the trust could face both ways, dictating the price of what it bought and what it sold. Small establishments ceased to be profitable, and were easily driven to the wall or absorbed; the country entered into a new and startling phase of industrial development. Again, the protective tariffs, made necessary by the war, developed rapidly a multitude of important manufacturing interests. And the march of science and invention increased their number and their efficiency. The millionaire appeared and multiplied. And the newspaper, penetrating into every hamlet of the country, made him the envy and the apparent enemy of many an industrious household. For was not all this wealth accumulated at the expense of the tiller of the soil? Was there not some evil necromancy, by which the sweat of the farmer was converted into the stocks of the capitalist, and the coupons of the bondholder?

§ 826. Coincident with this development of bitterness among the farmers, came the growth of discontent among the artisans and operatives of the large cities and manufacturing towns. The tides of immigration had filled the cities as well as the prairies and the mines, with a polyglot multitude struggling for life and wages. These too formed their combinations to regulate the price of the one thing they have to sell, their time and energy. Strikes became both frequent and destructive. The great railroad strikes of 1877 have been succeeded almost annually with labor troubles of some kind; now in the mines and now in the mills, now on the street cars, now on some great railway-line, now in the coke regions, now in the coal-fields, now in the car shops; among masons, carpenters, shoemakers, and tailors, men and women and children. The inevitable result has been the gradual diffusion of the belief that the present system is an organized and legalized wrong, to be abolished and reshaped by legislative enactment.

§ 827. The socialistic ideas, disseminated so rapidly through Europe, began to spread through America. Marx, though not studied, was quoted and adored. Captivating books, like "Progress and Poverty," and "Looking Backwards," diffused quickly distrust and discontent. College students began to declaim against the inequalities of the social order, and popular preachers to clamor for a readjustment of society. The flaunting of wealth, the follies and luxuries of fashionable idlers, the occasional insolence of the powerful, asking "what are you going to do about it?" or exclaiming, "damn the public," the escape of colossal criminals from condign punishment, the invasion of the United States Senate by millionaires, the enormous fortunes acquired by practical politicians, and by gamblers in stocks and grain, increased the general irritation. Deep answered deep. The distress of the farmer to the discontent of the artisan. The agitated surface of society began so cast up all manner of schemes, while splendid speculations built on the sand perished suddenly. Real difficulties were multiplied by exaggerated rhetoric and unwholesome fear. And the people, having learned to trust in legislation, began to cry for a miracle.

Yet the progress of our industries has been amazing. The telephone, the electric

motor, and the electric light, the rapid and daring application of machinery to every kind of production and manufacture, the discovery of oil, and coal and minerals of every kind, have made us the richest people in the world.\* The destruction of slavery, though fatal to the wealth of the former slaveholder, did not destroy the productive energy of the former slave. The nation gained economically by his emancipation, for the negro is more productive than ever. The new South is richer than the old, while the creative enterprises of the North are various, and numerous, and bold, giving employment to thousands, and adding annually to the permanent wealth and welfare of the people.

The tallow dip has been replaced by the coal-oil lamp, the tapestry carpet costs no more than the ancient product of the rag-bag and the hand loom, the faces of the "loved and lost" look down upon the poorest, from the neatly papered walls, the furniture of a room costs hardly more than our fathers paid for a table; children carry watches, for which Queen Elizabeth would have given a fortune, and the literature of the world can be had for less than she paid to get half a dozen books. The luxuries of former centuries have become the necessities of American life; so that the discontent of American society is but the friction generated by our tremendous progress, a witness of our power, and a warning of our danger. For the development of the intelligent citizen and the happy home is the only worthy goal of human progress; free institutions neither create nor preserve themselves; population is not the measure of prosperity; and it is far more important to study and to learn the immutable laws that regulate human movement, than to elect legislators, or even to control their legislation. The best and wisest rulers can but follow the leadings of that higher law, upon which depends the peace of mankind, and the happiness of the world.

§ 828. The extent to which the American people have realized their ideals was shown in the two great celebrations of 1876 and 1893; each a marvel of its kind, the latter the wonder of the century. Its vast extent and noble architecture excited universal astonishment. Its varied display of material and intellectual achievements startled the spectator with the growth of human power, and the possibilities of the future. Where, two decades before, the flames had devoured a city, there appeared a prodigy of strength and beauty, that seemed to challenge distant generations.

The rise of Chicago is but one marvelous chapter in the history of American cities. From 1850 to 1890 they have grown in number and in population, until they have become a source of great anxiety. Occasional riots, like those of Cincinnati, in 1884, of

\*The valuation of the property of the United States made in the Eleventh Census is as follows: Real Estate, \$39,544,544,333; Live Stock and Farm Implements, \$2,703,015,040; Mines and Quarries, \$1,291,291,579; Coin and Bullion, \$1,158,744,949; Railroads and Railways, \$3,685,407,323; Telegraphs and Telephones, \$701,755,712; Miscellaneous, \$7,893,708,821; Total, \$65,037,197,197.

From a bulletin issued by the census bureau it is shown that the entire receipts by the national, state, county, township and municipal governments of the United States combined, including schools and postal service and all forms of taxation, reached in 1890 an aggregate of \$1,040,473,013. The total expenditures for the government of the people, from the support of the district school to the payment of the expenses of Congress and the interest on the public debt in the same year, amounted to \$915,954,055, leaving a balance of \$124,518,958 in the treasuries of the various states, cities and counties. The revenues are made up from various sources, the largest being local taxation upon real and personal property, which was \$443,096,574. The liquor dealers of the United States contributed to the support of government the sum of \$24,756,496.

The largest expenditures of the people of the United States are for charities, amounting in 1890 to \$146,895,671. The second largest sum is paid for education, \$145,583,115. Omitting interest on the public debt, the next item in amount is for roads, sewers and bridges, \$72,262,023. The postal service cost \$66,000,000, the army and militia \$35,500,000, and \$15,174,403 was paid for the support of the navy. The cost of sustaining the police in all the cities and towns of the United States aggregated \$24,000,000, and the fire departments \$16,500,000. The judiciary system of the country cost \$23,000,000; \$12,000,000 was paid for the support of prisons and reformatories, \$11,000,000 for lighting the streets of the towns and cities of the United States; \$3,280,294 was paid for protecting the public health, \$2,962,697 for sustaining parks and public resorts. It costs the United States government \$6,608,047 to support the Indians, and \$11,737,738 for the improvement of rivers and harbors. It cost every man, woman and child in the United States the sum of \$13.15 to maintain the national, state and local governments in the year 1890.

New York and Brooklyn, in 1886 and 1887, and of Chicago, in the same year, have created much alarm; the development of the Tweed ring in New York city, the Gas ring in Philadelphia, and of city "bosses," in nearly every city of the Union, has excited earnest reflection, which has thus far borne not much fruit; although various States, conspicuously New York and Pennsylvania, have created able commissions to report upon the best methods of municipal government, and Brooklyn and Philadelphia are now living under improved charters. But the radical defect has not been reached. Municipal charters must be made independent of legislative caprice; no structure can ever rest secure upon the shifting sands of party exigency. Tweeds may die in prison, and Jacob Sharps within the shadow of the jail; yet their tribe increases. For the spoils are greater than the peril; to plunder a city is, under existing charters and circumstances, less difficult and less dangerous than any other kind of pillage, as it happens mostly under cover and color of the law.\* Nevertheless, the people are alive to these defects of political structure, and are striving to remove them. In many States new constitutions have been adopted for the redress of evils, and the ballot-reform movement has swept before it the combined and cunning opposition of the mercenary politicians. The most that these could do, was to check and mutilate the measures adopted in several of the States, and to impede their successful operation. The American citizen has ceased to boast of his institutions, and begun to study them; he is discovering their value and their failures; he is learning the limits of law, and the necessity of political training. Citizens, he sees, are neither born nor naturalized, but made. When the magnitude and glory, the difficulties and dangers of self-government in the United States are fully discerned, there will doubtless be a flow of energy into public life, such as marked the conduct of the civil war; an application of intelligence to political problems, like that which has conquered mountains and achieved the triumphs of American industry. Our fathers, as this history shows, fought, from the beginning, the battle of self-government; and yet reached a crisis, in 1784, that threatened the destruction of their future welfare. Then they were three millions only, and almost all of one stock. Under the pressure of its own weight, and the condemnation of progressive intelligence, slavery gave way, almost destroying the nation in its wreck. But the people rallied from the calamities of civil war, and developed a prosperity that challenged and received the admiration of the world. They now confront problems of a different kind, as yet but dimly grasped and feebly stated. To attempt the solution of them has been the chief glory of the noblest epochs hitherto; to solve them approximately, only, will make the American people the saviors of civil liberty.

\*The following table shows the principal cities of the United States arranged in the order of the expenditure per capita for the maintenance of their city governments; it does not show, however, what each city gets for its money.

St. Paul.....	\$39.07	Newark (N. J.).....	\$14.96	New Haven.....	\$11.33
Boston.....	32.63	Cleveland.....	14.56	Troy.....	11.18
New York.....	24.56	Lowell.....	14.48	Louisville.....	10.89
Columbus (O.).....	24.23	St. Louis.....	14.45	Nashville.....	10.88
Buffalo.....	23.41	Omaha.....	14.17	Memphis.....	10.82
Minneapolis.....	22.95	Baltimore.....	14.02	St. Joseph (Mo.).....	10.44
Los Angeles.....	21.59	Grand Rapids.....	13.98	Allegheny.....	10.20
San Francisco.....	18.86	Chicago.....	13.80	Evansville.....	9.32
Hartford (Conn.).....	17.64	Brooklyn.....	13.67	Indianapolis.....	9.27
Lynn (Mass.).....	17.29	Syracuse.....	13.35	Trenton.....	9.25
Providence.....	17.23	Charleston.....	13.35	New Orleans.....	8.65
Cambridge.....	16.94	Philadelphia.....	13.10	Wilmington.....	8.44
Worcester.....	16.73	Dayton.....	13.08	Paterson.....	8.41
Detroit.....	16.61	Jersey City.....	12.62	Kansas City.....	8.17
Rochester.....	15.91	Pittsburg.....	12.04	Des Moines.....	7.88
Atlanta.....	15.75	Fall River.....	11.93	Seranton.....	6.20
Albany (N. Y.).....	15.73	Toledo.....	11.44	Reading.....	5.07
Richmond (Va.).....	15.43				



§ 829. *Educational Progress.*—The older universities of the United States have been munificently endowed and intellectually transformed in recent years. As wealth accumulated, it began to pour into the treasuries of learning; as science triumphed over matter and bigotry, it forced its way into the halls of education, and compelled a change in the topics and methods of instruction; as intercourse with Europe increased through the development of steamships, and the laying of the Atlantic cable, the influence of Germany led to innovation and imitation, startling and almost revolutionary. The lecture displaced the text-book; special investigation took the place of the older training in the classics and mathematics; the student elected his pursuits and his professors; and a multitude of subjects were provided for his choice. This movement pervades the whole country, and has wrought both good and evil. It has filled the land with callow specialists, and has developed a few great scholars; it has led to much parade of erudition, and to a few displays of specialized intellectual power; but the modern Harvard can boast neither of an Emerson or a Lowell, a Prescott, a Motley, a Parkman, or a Holmes. Alongside of the older institutions, new and splendid foundations, like Johns Hopkins, Cornell, and Lehigh have appeared, and with them, colleges for women, like Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr.

In no respect is the change so marked, as in this eagerness to provide the highest education for young girls. Many of the universities and colleges admit both sexes to their classes, and others provide means for their separate instruction.

The State universities of the West are firmly rooted in the affections of the people, and the common school system still remains intact.\* Yet the latter is shaken occasionally by demands, from the Roman Catholics, for a division of the funds. In various localities the parochial school has insisted upon recognition by the State. In 1893 the Pope sent as legate to America, Archbishop Satolli, whose utterances and movements attracted much attention; and for the present the school question seems to sleep. Meanwhile, the new Catholic University at Washington excites the eager interest of Catholic and Protestant. The growth of Catholic schools and colleges has been commensurate with the rapid development of the Catholic church in recent years. The floods of immigration have lifted Romanism in the United States into commanding power, and their schools and seminaries are conducted with great skill, and supported with great liberality.

The theological schools of the country have multiplied rapidly, and two of them. Andover and Union, have been the centres of unusual interest. The attempts of their teachers to restate theology, in the light of modern scientific and historical researches, have provoked fierce criticism and angry debate.

Law schools and medical schools have likewise multiplied, and industrial schools

\*Of all the States New York expends the most money for school purposes, \$18,438,164. Pennsylvania is second, \$13,370,459. Then come Illinois, \$11,416,703; Ohio, \$11,069,254; Massachusetts, \$8,527,556; Iowa, \$6,570,063; Indiana, \$6,191,009. Of the Southern States, not including Missouri, Texas stands first in the expenditure of money for education with \$3,307,320; Kentucky second, \$2,088,165. Then come Maryland, \$2,012,868; Virginia, \$1,816,214; West Virginia, \$1,372,191, and Tennessee, \$1,324,441. Alabama spends but \$613,562. Louisiana \$754,728 and South Carolina but \$545,755 for schools.

The average cost of education in the United States per capita of population is \$2.24, while in 1880 it was only \$1.59. California pays more than any other State for the education per capita of her population, \$4.24, and Colorado per capita of her pupils enrolled, while Alabama pays the least, 37 cents per capita of population, and \$1.85 per capita of pupils enrolled.

The average cost of education per capita of population in New England and the North Atlantic States is \$2.74, a little above the average for the country; in the South Atlantic States, 98 cents; in the North Central States, \$2.81; in the Southern States, \$2.74, while in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific States it is \$3.25. The cost per capita of pupils enrolled for the United States is \$1.03. In the North Atlantic and New England States it is \$15.35; in the South Atlantic States, \$4.96; in the Northern Central States \$12.56; in the Southern Central States, \$4.39, and in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific States, \$19.71.

The total expenditures for school purposes in the United States increased from \$79,528,736 in 1880 to \$139,065,537 in 1890.

have been liberally endowed. The Drexel Institute of Philadelphia, and the Armour Institute of Chicago are splendid gifts to their respective communities, and to the future of America.

§ 830. *Indian Education.*—The Sioux Indians of western Minnesota, after frequently complaining of their treatment by the whites, attacked the frontier settlements in August, 1862. General Pope was hastily despatched to drive them from the State, and a number of the leaders were subsequently hanged. When Sitting Bull became their chief, they rose once more, but were driven into southern Montana, toward the Big Horn river. General Custer was surprised by them, and he and his regiment of cavalry completely destroyed.

Three years before, the Modocs of southern Oregon had resisted desperately an attempt to drive them from their "lava-beds." They killed the peace-commissioners sent out to pursue them, and fought for a whole year in their country of volcanic ruins and subterranean fortresses.

In 1877 the Nez Perce Indians also refused to leave their reservation, and took up arms. They were pursued from Idaho through Montana, but fought like a brave and honorable foe. They were finally compelled to surrender. But under the pressure of public opinion, the administration of General Grant started a policy of peace, and a system of Indian education. The reservation lines had come to be regarded as "a wall that fences out law and social order, and admits only greed, and despotism, and lawlessness." The government agent, living within this wall, was usually some precious product of the spoils system; the creature of an Indian ring. The result was inevitable; discontent and frequent Indian war. In 1878 Congress, therefore, passed the general land and severalty bill, which authorized the President to allot the land of a reservation to the Indians located on it. In 1882 the education division of the Indian bureau was created, and the work of instruction thoroughly organized.

*Bureau Schools*, comprising boarding, day, and industrial training schools have an enrolled attendance of ten thousand one hundred and seventy-two pupils.

*Special Schools*, like those of Hampton, Va., and Carlisle, Pa., have an enrolled attendance of two thousand one hundred and thirty-seven scholars, and the *Contract Schools*, maintained by missionary and church organizations, but receiving stipulated sums from the government, enroll three thousand five hundred and ninety-seven Indian children. Industrial training is a conspicuous feature of all these institutions; the children are of all tribes, and both sexes, and vary in age from eight to eighteen. The Pine Ridge and the Osage Indians have compulsory education laws, of their own adoption and administration, while the civilized tribes of the Indian Territory have, each of them, an independent school system, where instruction is given in the English language only. These five nations enroll, in their primary schools, eight thousand pupils; and in their secondary schools, fifteen hundred.

In fact, the history of the Five Nations throws more light upon the Indian problem, than all the pamphlets written on the Indian question; and the departure from the policy that established them so firmly in their homes, has been the fruitful source of all our Indian miseries.

§ 831. *Public Libraries* also have been munificently provided for—the Ridgway-Rush of Philadelphia, the Carter-Browne of Providence, the Lenox and the Tilden of

New York, the Peabody and the Pratt of Baltimore, the Newberry of Chicago are but a few of these great lights that bring knowledge to the reach of all that read.

*Literature.* The conspicuous feature of recent literary life in America is the development of the magazines. Harpers, the Atlantic, Scribners, the Century, have created for themselves an influence co-extensive with the country. These and other periodicals have discovered talent, and fostered the literary spirit; they have brought to American homes the genius of the old world, and filled the homes of Europe with the echoes of the new. While personality has vanished from the great dailies, it has reappeared in the weeklies and the monthlies. Men and women are heard, not only for what they say, but for what they are; and questions of prime importance are illuminated by those in whom the people have, for some reason, learned to trust.

James Russell Lowell, George William Curtis, William D. Howells, Charles Dudley Warner, J. G. Holland, R. W. Gilder, have all distinguished themselves in the conduct of these magazines. Holmes wrote for the Atlantic his famous "Autocrat" papers, Henry James has contributed to it and to others, striking stories and criticism. "Mark Twain" has made them the vehicle of his peculiar humor; Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote for them novels and sketches of New England life; Constance Woolson and Helen Hunt Jackson and Sara Jewett have adorned their pages with stories of rare beauty; Stedman and Stoddard have given us alternately fine poetry and noble criticism; Aldrich furnished verses and charming prose; Hopkinson Smith, bright sketches of travel, and attractive stories of American life. Nelson Page has painted for their pages the South before the war. George W. Cable has mingled truth and fiction in strange impressions of the "Old Creole" times in Louisiana. "Charles Egbert Craddock" ( ) has depicted for their readers the mountaineers of Tennessee, while James Whitcomb Riley and Edward Eggleston have made them familiar with Hoosier schools, and the pathos of life upon the Indiana prairies. Joel Harris made "Uncle Remus" the joy of all the children, Bret Harte brought to their pages the mining camp of the Pacific, and Walt Whitman chanted through them his rude and powerful lines.

These magazines are the chief educators of the American people, the meeting places of their noblest minds, the intellectual inspiration of aspiring youth, the support of all good causes, and the promise of a glorious literature of the future.

Of the older literary men, Holmes alone survives. Longfellow died with *Moriturus Salutamus* streaming from his golden lips, Whittier covered the nation with his benediction of the "Eternal Goodness," and Lowell left us, breathing out lofty indignation against the men that betray the hopes of mankind. Often misunderstood, but always faithful, his essays will abide, and his poems will endure; the one to show the breadth of his mind and the wealth of his culture, the other to reveal the depth of his feeling, the tenderness and sweetness of his humor, the beauty of his intellectual visions, and the nobility of his ideals.

§ 832. *History.* Francis Parkman began, in 1849, a marvellous series of historical narrations, dealing with the discoveries and settlements of the French in America. Their learning, their accuracy, their impartiality, their vivid and luminous style, won for them instant recognition, and placed their author at the head of the splendid company of historical writers. John Lothrop Motley devoted himself with enthusiasm

1814-1837. and with brilliant success, to the story of the Dutch struggle for civil



and religious liberty. Hubert Howe Bancroft began, in 1869, to collect materials for a complete history of the Pacific slope, which has proven voluminous and valuable.

Justin Windsor planned and executed, in co-operation with many leading investigators, a "Narrative and Critical History of America," which abounds in learning and splendid disquisitions. John Fiske has told the story of the American Revolution with great charm and power, Moses Coit Tyler has recovered for us the true soul and nature of Patrick Henry. John Bach McMaster has wrought into a picturesque narrative, the newspapers, memoirs, and pamphlets of former periods; Carl Schurz has recreated the political environment of Henry Clay, and made the great Kentuckian move before our fascinated fancy, while Hay and Nicolay have wrought the life of Lincoln into a "History of the Causes and Conduct of the Civil War."

§ 833. *Theology.* Horace Bushnell wrote books on great themes that made for him a name in the world; Philip Schaff contributed a splendid "History of the Christian Church;" Henry Ward Beecher poured forth sermons and essays full of poetry and philosophy, and at once profound and popular; Elisha Mulford described the republic of God as conceived by a noble Christian thinker; Theodore Munger has dealt with the problems of life and immortality; Henry M. Dexter told, with splendid erudition, the story of the Congregationalists; Abel Stevens has depicted with marvelous power the rise and progress of Methodism; Charles A. Briggs has interpreted the "Higher Criticism;" Arthur McGiffert has enriched us with the finest edition of Eusebius ever published; George P. Fisher has made valuable contribution to Christian history; McClintock and Strong have published a valuable encyclopedia, and James Freeman Clarke has enlarged our knowledge of the great religions.

§ 834. *Philosophy* has been cultivated with unusual energy. Dewey of Michigan has given us a fine psychology, and so did Porter of Yale. Ladd has quite recently opened up to Americans the path of physiological psychology explored by Wundt and Lotze of Germany, and Bowne of Boston has expounded the views of his great German teacher with unusual success. McCosh of Princeton has given us the fruits of a vigorous old age, and Stanley Hall of Clark has brought to us the inspiration of his great Leipzig instructor. William T. Harris has won for himself a high place as the expounder of German philosophy, and James of Harvard has published a treatise on psychology, brilliant, acute, and profound.

Francis Lieber gave the first impulse to the study of political philosophy in the United States, in his work on "Civil Liberty;" Theodore Woolsey and Elisha Mulford have followed him with contributions of great value. Wayland and Bowen, Carey and Perry, Newcomb and Walker have written ably but inharmoniously, upon economic subjects, and have been followed by a multitude of others. The bewildering confusion, prevailing among American students of economics, is re-echoed in the national legislature and in the public mind. Hence dogmatic vehemence and exasperating controversy, mixed with bold assertion, gilded platitudes and cunningly manipulated statistics, strut about as scientific demonstrations. For as yet we have no science, but only attempts at a science of political economy.

§ 835. *Inventions and the Sciences.* The Marsh harvester, which has supplanted almost every other form of reaping machine, was first built in 1858, and has not been changed materially since then, in principle or in form. It was the invention of the

two brothers Marsh, of De Kalb county, Illinois. A multitude of inventors next began to think out an automatic binder, in order to perfect the Marsh harvester; and finally John F. Appleby swept ahead of all the rest, with the twine binder, now in general use. Marshs and Appleby were greatly furthered in their efforts by William Deering of Chicago. "He established," writes Mr. C. W. Marsh, "twine binding machines as the grain harvesters of the time and the future."

Elisha Gray and Alexander Graham Bell perfected the telephone of Philip Reis of Frankfort; and the speaking wires now vibrate all over the globe. Bond, of Cambridge, and Henry Draper, of New York, photographed the moon and the *spectra* of the stars. Edison invented the incandescent light, and he and Tesla have astonished the world with their electric discoveries. The sleeping cars of Pullman and of Wagner, air-brakes and continuous platforms, have made long journeys easy and comparatively safe; and the transforming mind of the inventor has introduced most startling changes into every form of manufacture.

Louis Agassiz gathered about him at Cambridge a company of eager young biologists, who are now at work in every corner of the land. Asa Gray acquired, in botany, a renown of equal splendor. Joseph Henry, of the Smithsonian Institute, ranked with Michael Faraday, and his successor, Langley, is an acknowledged expounder of the new astronomy and the recent theories of solar energy. Newcomb of Washington, Young of Princeton, and Holden of the Lick observatory, are famous in both hemispheres for their knowledge of the skies, while Cooke of Cambridge expounds, with clearness and beauty, the wonders of the new chemistry. Whitney, and Gildersleeve, and Goodwin have won recognition from the philologists of Germany. Bache made a survey of the coast of the United States, marvellously complete and accurate; Hayden explored the Rocky Mountains; and Major Powell has published a complete description of the geology, botany, zoology, and ethnology of the Colorado river. Elisha Kane explored the arctic regions in search of Sir John Franklin; Commodore Perry opened up Japan; Hall and Howgate, and finally Greely, surpassed all others in their discoveries among the ice-bergs and the northern lights, while an American editor sent Stanley to the heart of Africa to discover David Livingstone.

a. The gold produced in the United States from 1792 to 1892 is estimated at \$1,937,581,769; the silver at \$1,148,161,465; or \$789,720,304 more of gold than silver. The production in 1892 was of silver \$74,989,390; gold \$33,000,000; \$41,989,390, more than twice as much silver as gold. In five years, 1889—1893, we exported in gold, \$322,000,000 and imported in gold \$112,600,000; \$210,000,000 more exported than imported; in silver, exported \$164,000,000, imported \$100,000,000; \$64,000,000, more exported than imported. That is we have lost nearly seven times one year's gold product, and less than a single year's silver product in these five years.

b. In 1890 there were 221,087 hands employed in the woolen, and 140,978 in the iron and steel industries. The manufacture of cotton goods has nearly doubled in a decade, but so it has throughout the world, for two-thirds of our cotton crop, which has also doubled in the last twelve years, still goes abroad. The total area under cotton was, in 1890, 19,566,271 acres; under cereals, 141,704,000 acres. The total value of all mineral products reached \$74,356,848, as follows: Coal, \$207,637,139; pig iron, \$131,161,039; silver, \$74,989,390; copper, \$37,977,142; gold, \$33,000,000; petroleum, \$26,034,196.

c. Population of the United States:

1790.....	3,929,214	1830.....	12,866,020	1870.....	38,558,371
1800.....	5,308,483	1840.....	17,069,453	1880.....	50,155,783
1810.....	7,239,881	1850.....	23,191,876	1890.....	62,622,250
1820.....	9,633,822	1860.....	31,443,321		

d. The immigrants, since June 30, 1868, aggregate 12,875,876, not including those from Canada and Mexico, nor aliens not registered as immigrants.

e. New States have been admitted in the following order.

1. Vermont.....	Mar. 4, 1791	12. Arkansas.....	June 15, 1836	22. West Virginia.....	June 19, 1863
2. Kentucky.....	June 1, 1792	13. Michigan.....	Jan. 26, 1837	23. Nevada.....	Oct. 31, 1864
3. Tennessee.....	June 1, 1796	14. Florida.....	March 3, 1845	24. Nebraska.....	Mar. 1, 1867
4. Ohio.....	Nov. 29, 1802	15. Texas.....	Dec. 29, 1845	25. Colorado.....	Aug. 1, 1876
5. Louisiana.....	April 30, 1812	16. Iowa.....	Dec. 28, 1846	26. North Dakota.....	}.....1889
6. Indiana.....	Dec. 11, 1816	17. Wisconsin.....	May 29, 1848	27. South Dakota.....	
7. Mississippi.....	Dec. 10, 1817	18. California.....	Sept. 9, 1850	28. Montana.....	
8. Illinois.....	Dec. 3, 1818	19. Minnesota.....	May 11, 1858	29. Washington.....	}.....1890
9. Alabama.....	Dec. 14, 1819	20. Oregon.....	Feb. 14, 1859	30. Wyoming.....	
10. Maine.....	Mar. 15, 1820	21. Kansas.....	Jan. 29, 1861	31. Idaho.....	
11. Missouri.....	Aug. 10, 1821				

—\* Slave states in italics.

## V. CANADA.

§ 836. *a. From the Conquest to the Union of the Two Canadas.*



QUEBEC passed to England in 1763, and with it all the territory now  
 1763. known as British North America. Although the

English made liberal promises to the French inhabitants, yet many of them left the country. Their places were taken by English from across the sea and from New England. But General Murray, who governed the province with the rule of the soldiery, respected the religion and customs of the French, and the latter reluctantly accepted the situation. Sir Guy Carleton, an exceedingly popular general and diplomat, became governor in 1766. He conciliated the French without weakening his own  
 1774 control. In 1774 the Quebec act was enacted by the English Parliament. This was opposed by London merchants, and by the Continental Congress. New England objected to it as a covert attack upon the Protestant religion; Pennsylvania and New York because of its boundary provisions.

The chief features of the Quebec act were :—

The preservation of the Catholic religion to the French Canadians; the establishment in the province of the criminal law of England; the continuance of the French civil code and practice; and the creation of an executive council.

The Quebec act and the wise administration of Sir Guy Carleton so strengthened the loyalty of the Canadians, that the expedition of Arnold and Montgomery, against Quebec, ended most disastrously for the Americans.

When, however, Sir Guy was superseded in command of the army by General Burgoyne, he resigned angrily. The defeat of Burgoyne at Saratoga, and the success of the American Revolution, drove thousands of loyalists into Canada. They settled

1781. along Lake Erie as far as Detroit. Haldimand, the new governor of the province, fearing their republican opinions, permitted none of them to dwell on the frontier. Especially anxious did he become, upon learning that certain dissatisfied men in Canada were in secret correspondence with eminent citizens of the United States. After eight years of Haldimand's suspicious and narrow policy, Sir Guy Carleton came back as Lord Dorchester. His second administration was one of great prosperity. He favored free institutions, and was therefore not displeased when the loyalist settlers petitioned for a share in the government. They were, however, violently opposed by the English speaking people of Montreal and Quebec. This opposition,

1791. though, proved unsuccessful, and Parliament passed the Act of 1791, dividing the province of Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada. Each division received two houses of parliament; a council appointed by the crown, an assembly chosen by the people. This act provided also for the support of "a Protestant clergy," empowering the governors to erect and endow parsonages.

§ 837. The settlers of Upper Canada at first endured great suffering; the famine of 1788 was long remembered among them. The country was then but a vast forest, without towns, without roads, and without direct communication with the world. When John Graves Simcoe, a loyalist officer of the Revolutionary war, summoned his

1792. first Parliament in 1792, two only of the five councillors, and five only



of the sixteen assemblymen, answered the governor's call. They met in a miserable log hut at Niagara. It was harvest time, and hence the absence of their colleagues. Nevertheless, the little company passed eight important statutes. They established the law of England in the province, divided the country into counties, opened the lands to settlers, and invited thousands to cross the Niagara river and make a home among them. They chose London to be the military station, and Toronto (York) to be the capital of the province. The population of the new province rose rapidly from twelve to thirty thousand; settlers flocked in from all quarters, Scotchmen, Englishmen, Highlanders, Huguenots, French émigrés, and Thomas Talbot's bold frontiersmen. And yet the "sedition act" of 1804, gave power to arrest any person under suspicion, who had been less than six months in the province.

Gov. Simcoe's successors were conspicuously incompetent. And Upper Canada soon became a scene of party strife. The original settlers, the loyalists from the States, proscribed the later emigrants, and drove them to their defence. And as all of them were contentious and fond of fight there was no lack of turbulence.

This quarrel was silenced temporarily by the war between Great Britain and the  
 1812. United States, in 1812. The capture of General Hull, and the victory of the Canadians at Queenstown heights, marked the first year of the war. But in the  
 1813. second, Niagara was burned and the Canadian fleet destroyed by Commodore Perry. Toronto, then called York, also fell into the hands of the Americans, and when the year closed, they were in possession of all the western peninsula of Upper Canada. The Niagara frontier was fought for in 1814. The Canadians lost Fort Erie, and were repulsed at Chippewa, and the bloodiest battle of the war was fought at Lundy's Lane. But in November, the Americans withdrew entirely from Canada, and have never since returned.

§ 838. *The Family Compact.* John Strachan, rector of York (Toronto), was a leader of public opinion during this three years' struggle with the United States. Strachan, though an English clergyman, was a fighting Scotchman, pugnacious, persevering, courageous, indefatigable, cunning, and greedy of power. He, in conjunction with Chief Justice Powell, John Beverly Robinson, and others of like minds, formed,  
 1820. in 1820, a party which was known for many years as the Family Compact. These men ruled the governor and the council. They drove Robert Gourlay, an honest and capable man, from the province, because, in prosecuting his business, he dared to circulate a list of questions that seemed to reflect upon their conduct; and they filled the offices with their favorites and tools. They became, however, so obnoxious to the people, that in 1824, an Assembly was elected, hostile to their  
 1824. tyranny. The *Colonial Advocate* was started at the same time by William Lyon Mackenzie, an impetuous Scotchman, whose vehement opposition soon brought down upon him the hatred of the Compact and their adherents. The *Advocate* office was gutted by a mob; but the damages recovered by Mackenzie from his persecutors, lifted him from poverty, and public sympathy made him a member of the Assembly. And Robert Baldwin, a man of integrity and of noble character, was chosen to represent York (Toronto) in opposition to the candidate of the Cabal. But Sir John Colborne, who succeeded Maitland as governor, was like him enamored of oligarchic measures, and like him helped, of course, the Family Compact.

§ 839. *The Clergy Reserve Controversy.* And a religious quarrel intensified the

strife of parties. The Act of 1791 provided for the maintenance of a clergy by the state. One-seventh of the crown lands was allotted for the support of a Protestant clergy. When, however, a Scottish Presbyterian congregation asked for the loan of one hundred pounds from the clergy reserve fund, a furious fight began, that lasted through thirty years. Lord Bathurst, the British secretary for the colonies, decided, when appealed to, that the term "a Protestant clergy," might include the Scottish church, but not Dissenters, although Lord Grenville had declared, at the time of its passage, that the bill meant to provide for any clergy that was not Roman Catholic. Dr. Strachan was in 1823 chairman of the Upper Canada Reserves Corporation. He threw himself with untiring energy into the battle. He claimed for the Episcopalians of the province a monopoly of loyalty to England, and he insinuated that the Methodists of the province were saturated with republican ideas, imbibed from their American preachers. This brought Egerton Ryerson and the Methodists, whose avowed leader he soon became, into a quarrel hitherto confined to Episcopalians and Presbyterians. Strachan petitioned the Crown authorities that the Church of England be alone allowed the benefits of the act. The Assembly there upon declared that the Scottish church was entitled to a share of the funds. But the legislative council supported Strachan, and refused to concur in this declaration of the Assembly. The latter thereupon appealed to the King, but his majesty decided that the "clergy reserve fund" had been created by Parliament exclusively for a clergy of the established church.

**Sir John Colborne,**  
**1838-1839.** Elated by this success, Strachan now hastened to England and obtained the charter, a land endowment and a money grant of one thousand pounds a year, for a King's College, grounded on the thirty-nine articles of the English church. His conduct provoked intense excitement and violent recriminations, which grew furious when Sir John Colborne erected secretly forty-four rectories of the Church of England, under the "glebe clause" of the act of 1791, and endowed them with extensive and valuable lands. The Assembly in 1840 denied again the exclusive claim of the Church of England; and the authorities of the crown, eager to compromise this bitter quarrel, procured the passage of an act vesting the revenues of the public lands in the imperial parliament for religious purposes. Strachan now become Bishop, entered immediately upon a series of devices that resulted in the transfer of the fund to Canada in 1853. And in 1854, the controversy was finally settled by an act securing their life interests to the clergy already in the enjoyment of grants, and devoting the remainder of the fund to public education.

§ 840. *Papineau's Rebellion.* While Upper Canada Christians were quarreling about the manum of unrighteousness, Louis Papineau was elected year after year speaker of the Assembly of the French-speaking province. Lord Dalhousie, the governor-general, refused to recognize him, whereupon he was himself transferred to India. A committee of the British Parliament then recommended a reform in the government of the province, and in 1832 the local revenues were passed over to the control of the Assembly. The French Canadians seized them eagerly, and started at once to starve out the English judges and civil officers. Salaries were unpaid; the government seemed blocked. The French Canadians confronted the "Constitutional Associations" of the English. Lord Russell next intensified the strife by the four resolutions that he introduced into the House of Commons, in which the legislative assembly of Lower Canada was condemned, and the oligarchic council defended. Both provinces were

now demanding that councillors should be elected by the people. Excited meetings were held in Lower Canada; Papineau tribute was collected; liberty caps displayed; homespun coats and gowns became the fashion; drilling begun; and fighting took place between angry groups of "Constitutionalists" and "Sons of Liberty." But Sir John Colborne acted promptly and decisively. He attacked the insurgents wherever they collected. Dr. Nelson, the leader of one band, was captured, and Papineau escaped across the border.

§ 841. *Mackenzie's Rebellion.* William Lyon Mackenzie, excited by this movement in Lower Canada, broke suddenly into an insurrection that led to much ruin and distress in Upper Canada.

He had been for years bitterly assailed by the forces of the Family Compact; and had been too radical and too straight-forward to hold the opposition solid. In 1830 the oligarchy was strong enough to pass the "everlasting salary" bill, which made judges and councillors independent of the Assembly for their pay. Mackenzie, though three times elected to the House, was three times expelled by the tyrannical majority. All this added to his popularity. The law officers of Great Britain pronounced his expulsion illegal. Re-elected by a large majority, the House once more refused to admit him. But Toronto made him the first mayor of the city, and his triumph was assured, when an unfortunate expression of Joseph Hume, adopted by Mackenzie, enabled his enemies to cry out "disloyalty!" Nevertheless, he and his adherents controlled the Assembly of 1835, which exposed the Family Compact, and compelled the recall of Sir John Colborne. But Sir Francis Head, Colborne's successor, threw his entire strength against Mackenzie; Hume's expression, "the baneful domination of the mother country," was quoted against him continually; "Hurrah for the British connection!" shouted the servants of the "Family Compact." This shout carried the discredited oligarchy back to place and power, and the overwhelmed Mackenzie began to lose his head. He entered into communication with Louis Papineau; he formed a committee of vigilance, and he agreed with Papineau to head an uprising in Toronto, on the same day that the insurgents met their enemies in Montreal. He proclaimed a "Provisional Government of the State of Upper Canada," and assembled eight hundred adherents a few miles from Toronto. But while he hesitated to take the city, Colonel McNab dispersed his men, and put a price upon Mackenzie's head. He fled to Navy Island, where he flung his flag to the breeze; but the flag soon ceased to flutter, and Mackenzie had thrown away the chances of a patriotic and useful career, by his lack of patience and political sense.

§ 842. *Durham and the Act of Union.* In 1838 the Earl of Durham became governor-general of Upper Canada. He was swift to perceive the conditions and needs of the province. Yet his rule was hardly successful. Sixteen rebels were exiled by his decree, among them Dr. Nelson, conspicuous in connection with Mackenzie. "Lord High Seditious!" cried Durham's enemies in England. And the government disallowed and disavowed him; Durham attacked in turn his British superiors; the ministry thereupon recalled their angry (in)subordinate. But his report on Canada is invaluable. Upper and Lower Canada differ, he said, in their political conditions; in the one there is a conflict of principles, in the other a conflict of races. He recommended a union of the two. In 1839 Lord John Russell introduced into Parliament a bill embodying his suggestions. To ascertain the sense of the Canadians,



**1840.** a special envoy of great tact and ability was sent over from England, John Poulett Thompson. Upon his return, the union was accomplished. This act of union of 1840 contained the following features:

The legislature was to consist of an equal number of members from each province.

English alone should be spoken in Parliament (this was subsequently modified). A civil list over which the Assembly had no control was made out, and made permanent.

The relation of the Executive to the Legislature was not clearly defined, but to prevent a recurrence of the former troubles, it was provided that the governor should only exercise power according to instructions from the crown. This act satisfied neither the rebels nor the Family Compact. But the moderates were highly pleased.

*b. From the Union to the Formation of the Dominion. (1840-1867.)*

§ 843. Thompson, to whose report as envoy the passage of the act was due, came again to Canada as Governor-General, and Lord Sydenham. He chose his cabinet from the moderate members of both factions. Baldwin, the liberal chief, and Draper, afterward chief-justice, were the ministerial leaders. But the Assembly affirmed, plainly and emphatically, that the governor was subject to the advice of the council. Sydenham skillfully avoided and evaded difficulty. But his successor, Lord Metcalfe,

**1843-1846.** refused to listen to the council, and made his own appointments. The ministry at once resigned. The assembly denied him the prerogatives that he claimed, and the struggle terminated only with his death.

The coast provinces had similar struggles. Nova Scotia was ruled by an oligarchy, and New Brunswick rejected a new constitution sent over by Lord John Russell. In Nova Scotia, however, the Assembly led by Joseph Howe demanded a responsible government, declared a want of confidence in the governor of the provinces, Sir Colin Campbell, and asked for his recall. The struggle in each province was long and difficult, but they were both organized finally on the same principle as Upper and Lower Canada.

§ 844. *The Losses Bill.*—The new Parliament of Canada met in 1844. It opened with a quarrel. Upper Canada had obtained ten thousand pounds, in order to pay losses incurred during the rebellion. Lower Canada now demanded an equal sum. The ministry granted the settlement of losses in Lower Canada: and Upper Canada thereupon broke out in wrath. Lord Elgin became governor-general in the midst of the tumult. Great excitement greeted him at Montreal. The English minority failing to defeat the ministry (La Fontaine—Baldwin), signed a manifesto, demanding annexation to the United States. Nevertheless, the losses bill was carried.

**1850.** Wild excesses followed. Lord Elgin was mobbed on his way home by the minority, and the Parliament house was sacked and burned. But the new governor-general was calm and wise. He developed the resources of the country, encouraged canals and railroads, and greatly furthered the cause of education.

§ 845. *The Land and Rent Excitement.*—The losses bill trouble was followed by a sharp conflict about land and rent charges. Lands in Canada had been divided originally into seigniories; these were owned at first by members of the French nobility, and the Canadian tenant farmers were compelled to pay large revenues to their de-

scendants. These rents had become exceedingly onerous and oppressive; finally the seigniors were induced to accept two million five hundred thousand dollars, in lieu of all their claims. Lord Elgin's administration was also memorable for the reciprocity

**1854.** treaty, negotiated with the United States. The adoption of free trade by England had greatly depressed Canadian industry, so that this treaty was hailed with great delight, yet the prosperity that rushed in like a flood, was soon followed by disaster. The "clergy reserve" question was also settled in Lord Elgin's time; the reserves were secularized, and the Church of England in Canada made practically independent.

§ 846. *The Clear Grits.*—Upper Canada, which had been growing rapidly since the union, now demanded increased representation in Parliament. George Brown, the leader of the "Clear Grits," a split from the liberal party, put the Conservatives in the minority, on the question of a capital site. But Sir Edmund Head, the governor, refused to dissolve Parliament. The Cartier ministry was then defeated on the

**1862.** militia bill and a dead-lock ensued. Ministry followed ministry in quick succession. Confusion prevailed, until the three leaders, Brown, MacDonald, and Cartier formed a coalition ministry, which set about the deliverance of the country from the dead-lock, and the formation of a union of all the Canadian colonies. The warfare that ensued was bitter and demoralizing, but finally a conference met at Quebec, composed of delegates from both Canadas and Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward's Island. Seventy-two articles were here agreed upon, for submission to the various legislatures. During this contest in Canada, the civil war was raging in the United States, and Canada was threatened with serious difficulties. Refugees and conspirators from the South gathered upon the borders and in the Canadian

**1865.** cities; Fenian raids were attempted from the States, and incursions made from Canada into Vermont. Nothing came of it all, but alarm, and irritation, and diplomatic correspondence.

c. *The Dominion. (1867-1894).*

§ 847. In 1867 the English Parliament passed the British North American Act, which created the Dominion of Canada. This act, the passage of which

**1867.** called forth great rejoicing, united in one confederation, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Four years later Manitoba and British Columbia were included. Prince Edward's Island followed in 1874. The Dominion's Parliament consists of two chambers; a Senate and a popular Assembly. The members of the Senate are nominated by the prime minister, and hold office for life. The chief features of government are described in the act creating the Dominion, but the British constitution is referred to as the authoritative guide in questions of peculiar difficulty. After the formation of the Dominion, Sir John MacDonald became conspicuous in Canadian

**1870.** politics. He was prime minister during Riel's short first rebellion in Manitoba. He was one of the commissioners who arranged the treaty of Washington, by which the Alabama claim and other outstanding questions between England and

**1871.** the United States were referred to arbitration. But as the parts of this treaty relating to Canada were exceedingly unpopular in the Dominion, Sir John and his party barely escaped defeat the following year. To carry the elections for MacDonald and the Conservatives, Sir Hugh Allan contributed enormous sums of money, receiving in return the pledge of the ministry to put through Parliament the

charter of the Canadian Pacific Railroad Company, of which Sir Hugh was president.

**1873.** When Parliament met an investigation was demanded; Sir John offered no defence, but his majority defeated the resolutions appointing a committee. Finally he was compelled to yield, and a committee was appointed, which brought in

**Lord Dufferin.** a report incriminating the Premier and his colleagues. Lord Dufferin,

**1873-1878.** the Governor-general, was obliged to convene a special session of Parliament, which met, discharged the committee, and appointed a royal commission of three judges to report to the House in October. When Parliament reconvened, intense excitement prevailed. A motion of censure was introduced and debated hotly; but before the vote was taken, the ministry resigned. Alexander Mackenzie now became prime minister, and under the administration of the Liberals, the Dominion prospered exceedingly. Notwithstanding the scandal that overthrew the Conservatives, the construction of the Canadian Pacific road was gradually pushed forward. But when a

**1876.** period of financial stringency set in, the country began to clamor for protection. Mackenzie refused to adopt a change of policy, but MacDonald was more than willing. He strode forward as the champion of a national system. Rallying the entire Conservative party to his new standard, in two years time he regained the control of Canada. Lord Dufferin's term of office now expired. He had

**1878.** been exceedingly popular, having managed affairs with exquisite tact. Sir John MacDonald carried his national policy into effect. A high protective tariff was enacted, a revival of trade followed, general prosperity returned, and the Canadian Pacific railway was completed, regardless of expense. In 1880 the British Parliament transferred the dominion and jurisdiction of all the British possessions in

**1880.** Canada, except Newfoundland and its dependencies, to the Parliament of the Dominion. But the inexcusable neglect of department officials in adjusting the claims of settlers in the Northwest, led to an uprising of Indians and half-breeds under Riel. The insurrection was promptly suppressed. Riel and ten Indians were arrested, tried, convicted and sentenced to death. The leader and eight of the others suffered the extreme penalty, and more than a score expiated their offence in jail.

§ 848. The Canadian Pacific railway, after desperate financial struggles, was completed in 1886. In 1887 the Dominion received another grant of power from the imperial Parliament. Henceforth she might negotiate her own commercial treaties, in connection with the ministry representing Her Majesty. At the

**1882.** same time delegates from the various provinces met to consider amendments to the act of 1876; they recommended an enlargement of the powers of provincial officers. The question of reciprocity with the United States provoked a hot discussion, but the administration triumphantly opposed the policy. Difficulties, touching the rights of American fishermen on the banks of Newfoundland, severely strained the relations between the Dominion and the United States, while the destruction of seals in the Alaskan waters, by Canadian fishermen, produced another sharp and dangerous controversy. These differences, are now in process of final settlement; the British and American government having submitted them to a court of arbitration, which met and passed upon them in the summer of 1893. Sir John MacDonald

**1891.** died in 1891. In a few months investigations were demanded into the conduct of various departments, and unpleasant revelations led to the overthrow of several popular leaders:—conspicuous among them being Mercier, the hitherto all powerful leader of the French in Lower Canada.





## B. CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

### I. MEXICO.

#### THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE AND THE SUBSEQUENT REVOLUTIONS.

§ 729.



**J**OSÉ DE ITURRIGARAY was Spanish Viceroy in Mexico when Napoleon I. drove the Bourbon king from **1808.** Spain. He sought to conciliate the

Mexicans while pursuing his exactions, partly for his own advantage and partly to satisfy the demands of the Bonapartes. A conspiracy was framed against him and he was sent back to Spain a prisoner. His successors were timid and irresolute. This brought to the

**Sept. 1810.** front Miguel Hidalgo, a native priest,

strong with the clergy and trusted by the discontented. He was supported by Ignacio de Allende, a man of some skill as a soldier. After a brief period of success Hidalgo was defeated by Calleja, in 1811, and

obliged to fly with his broken army. And he with his companions, Jimenes and Allende, were soon captured and promptly shot by the victorious royalists. José Maria Morelos, however, continued the struggle with a valiant remnant of the insurgents. He too failed, was captured and executed in 1815. But his stubbornness and courage had increased the strength of the insurgents, and in 1816

they held their own against a force of 80,000. But in 1817 the leaders were obliged to succumb. In 1820 the news reached Mexico that Ferdinand VII. was once more King of Spain. The revolutionists now made overtures to a man who had been most active in suppressing the former rebellion, Augustin de Iturbide. The latter accepted, and in 1821 entered the gates of the capital as the conqueror of Mexico. For in spite **1822-1823.** of the opposition of the republicans, he proclaimed himself Emperor and compelled the Congress to acquiesce.

Santa Anna organized an army of liberators; the soldiers deserted to the re-  
(949)

public; Iturbide abdicated and gladly accepted permission to embark for Italy. The  
**1825-1829.** United States of Mexico opened their history in 1824, with Guadalupe Victoria as president of the republic.

Spain, however, did not yield until 1836, and then only after an ignominious failure to reconquer the country made in 1829.

Party struggles disgraced the new Union and kept the people in unceasing turmoil. In 1841 Santa Anna entered the capital at the head of an army; but his stay was short; in 1842 Herrera proclaimed him a rebel and he fled the country.

Meanwhile the Americans had entered Texas. In 1833 there were already 20,000 of them there. The United States offered repeatedly to purchase the territory, but Mexico refused to sell, and Santa Anna was sent to bring the Texans to obedience. He was met at San Jacinto by General Samuel Houston, taken prisoner and compelled to agree to the independence of Texas. Mexico repudiated the con-  
**1846-1848.** tract; and in attempting to regain control, was obliged to do battle with the United States, and this resulted in the additional loss of Upper California, New Mexico, and Arizona.

§ 730. Santa Anna, who had been compelled to fly in 1842, returned during the war with the United States to the presidency of the Republic and to the control of the army, but proved so weak that in 1855 he was compelled to abdicate once more. A period of anarchy then followed. Finally General Alvarez obtained the presidency, and with the help of the liberals and radicals ruled with dictatorial violence. He sketched a new constitution in which the clergy especially were great sufferers; the property of the church being in many cases confiscated. A reaction soon took place, in consequence of which Zuloaga, a Conservative, became president and the constitution of 1857 was abolished. The radicals, however, stuck to their principles, stirred up the people of the provinces against the "reactionary classes" of the capital, and made Juarez their president. There were now two governments, one at Vera Cruz  
**1858.** and one at Mexico, and a civil war ensued between the Guerilla bands of Juarez and the regular troops of General Miramon.

The United States demanded the right of transit across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Zuloaga refused this demand, whereupon the government at Washington recognized Juarez as president. Juarez confiscated the properties of the church, and prosecuted energetically the war against the Conservatives; and in December 1860 his General, Ortega, made a triumphal entry into the capital.

But meanwhile Mexico had become greatly indebted to the bankers of Europe; besides this the European residents of Mexico clamored for compensation, for the losses incurred by them during the civil war. This led to the convention at London, in



MAXIMILIAN.

which England, France, and Spain declared that, owing to the weakness of the Mexican authorities, they were compelled to demand better protection for their citizens resident in Mexico, and to require the fulfillment of the financial obligation entered into by the Mexican state. Three squadrons were sent to America to demand satisfaction for the past and security for the future; they took possession of Vera Cruz together with

*Dec. 1861.* other harbors; the Spanish under General Prim encamped at Orizaba, the French at Tehuacan, and the English at Cordova. But the allies soon disagreed

*April 9, 1862.* and the English and Spanish withdrew. But the honor of France and of the French Emperor, required that an undertaking so ostentatiously begun should not be ingloriously abandoned, notwithstanding the attacks which were made upon it by the French Republicans and the opposition that it encountered in Mexico.

*May 18, 1863.* After much suffering and many difficulties, the French overcame all resistance; capital and provinces alike surrendered. A triumvirate was chosen and an assembly of notables convened. The republic was abolished, a limited hereditary monarchy was established, and the imperial crown was offered to Maximilian, of Austria. The choice was a prudent one. Maximilian was a younger brother of the Emperor of Austria; was finely educated, had traveled much, was full of energy, of courage, and of ambition. His wife, Marie Charlotte, supported him in this great

*1864.* adventure, and they departed for Mexico with eager expectations. The United States at once made known its discontent, and their Congress declared that the people of the United States found it irreconcilable with their principles, to recognize an imperial government that had been established upon the ruins of the Mexican

republic, under the auspices of a European power. Maximilian soon found that the Mexicans would not support him, and that the French army of occupation were unable to put down the guerilla bands of Juarez and the Republicans. The revenues of the land were insufficient, and it was impossible to borrow money in Europe. The United States had reached the close of the Civil War, and now demanded the withdrawal of the French from Mexico. Maximilian was thereupon abandoned, first by the French Emperor and then by his Mexican supporters. The Empress Charlotte journeyed in vain to Paris and to Rome, seeking help from Napoleon and from the Pope. The only result of her mission was her own insanity. Bazaine, the French commander in Mexico, advised Maximilian to abdicate, but he re-



MARSHAL BAZAINE.

*1867.* fused. For the Mexicans who had been faithful to him, saw in his remaining, their only hope of safety. In 1867 the French troops returned to Europe. The last of them had scarcely left Vera Cruz, when the army of the liberals and the guerilla bands attacked the empire. The inhabitants of the capital urged the Emperor



to withdraw, and Maximilian acceded to their wishes. He retired to Queretaro where he was soon surrounded. But he and his little army defended themselves with desperate courage. He was finally betrayed for money by Colonel Lopez, a man whom he had distinguished and rewarded above all others. A court-martial was convened and Maximilian was condemned to be shot. On the day of his execution the capital

*June 19, 1867.* surrendered to Diaz, and eight days after Juarez entered Vera Cruz in triumph. Juarez retained the chief magistracy until his death. A few attempts at rebellion were promptly suppressed. Under his successor Tejada, however, Diaz raised the standard of rebellion, overthrew the existing government and began a period of liberal reform. This old guerilla chieftain, the right hand of Juarez, and the destruction of Maximilian's empire, was re-elected to the presidency in 1884.



PORFIRIO DIAZ.

## II. SOUTH AMERICA.

## THE STRUGGLES FOR INDEPENDENCE AND THE FORMATION OF THE REPUBLICS.

§ 735.



THE Spanish dominion in South America was one of cruelty, selfishness, and extortionate greed. As in Mexico, so everywhere, only Spaniards from the mother country could bear rule. The Creole population suffered for the most part in sullen silence, the natives with the patience of despair. The War of the Spanish Succession made the former restless, and the War of American Independence opened the eyes of the Americans, to the immense profits that

were drawn by the Spaniards from their colonies. For their intercourse with the French revealed to them the enormous gains of the Spanish system of colonial monopolies. Nevertheless, the attempt of Miranda of Caraccas to stir the people of South America to energetic resistance, failed entirely. The interests of the different provinces were too various, the population was politically too ignorant, and the antagonism between Spaniard, Creole, and Native was too irreconcilable for him and his French and English supporters to succeed.

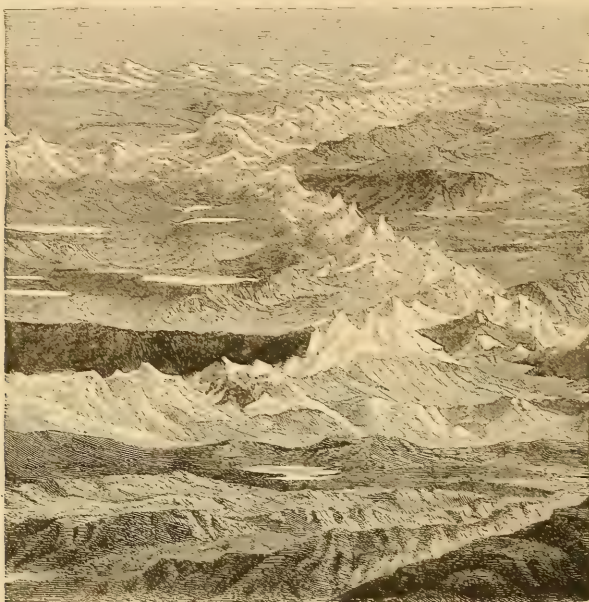
But in the beginning of this century, the career of Napoleon Bonaparte reshaped the American as well as the European world. It gave Louisiana to the United States, which carried with it the surrender of Florida by Spain, and it broke the bond that united Mexico and South America to the mother country. When the Bourbons were driven from the Spanish throne, and Joseph Bonaparte placed there by his powerful brother, the Spanish possessions in America consisted of four vice-royalties (New Granada, New Spain or Mexico, Rio de la Plata or Buenos Ayres, and Peru), and of five general captaincies (Chili, Venezuela, Guatemala, Cuba and Porto Rico). For a while the Spanish authorities in the colonies were undecided and discordant. Mariana Morena, an enterprising, educated and resolute citizen of Buenos Ayres, sought to use this want of promptness and of harmony among the Spanish rulers for the creation of a patriotic party, and to win the people generally for freedom and independence. But he and his adherents encountered a fearful enemy in the Guachos, the wild sons of the Pampas. On these great grass plains, stretching from the torrid regions of the palm tree to the ice fields of Patagonia, roved a multitude of savage herdsmen upon their half-tamed horses, whose wild life knew nought of any moral code; who hated every social organization, and looked with contempt upon the "tenderfeet" that dwell in cities.

§ 736. In Chili the Captain-General Carrasco was opposed by Martinez de Kosas, an influential man who organized the patriots, and in Venezuela Simon Bolivar raised the standard of independence at the head of a powerful

July 1810.

1811.

and intelligent party. Napoleon's demand that the colonies should recognize the new King Joseph found there the same reception as in the mother country. His governors were everywhere expelled, and in most cities juntas were formed, which acted for



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE ANDES.

Ferdinand VII., but desired and worked really for independence. The separation was accomplished in most of the colonies without blood-shed: Quito was an exception, for their twenty-eight patriots were slaughtered, and their homes plundered by the Spanish garrison.

When the Cortes were called together at Cadiz to form a liberal constitution for Spain, the American representatives, who were present upon invitation, desired for the colonies equal rights with the mother country: equality of representation in the Cortes and full liberty of trade. These demands found no response: for to have conceded them, would have transferred the political superiority to the Americans, and would have given a mortal blow to the opulent trade at Cadiz. Equal rights were granted to all the races of South America, and the old restrictions upon agriculture and industry were abolished. But the dissatisfied Americans declared themselves independent of the Cortes, organized themselves as independent states, and, although not everywhere victorious, maintained themselves with honor against the Spanish Governors and their troops, and would have conquered even greater results if the jealousy of the cities and the discord of the sections had not prevented concerted action.



§ 737. After the restoration of Ferdinand, the Spanish colonies would have returned to their allegiance, if the ill-advised king had not refused their just demands and re-

quired of them unconditional submission to his royal will. But the South Americans put no confidence in the monarch who, by cruel persecution of the Spanish liberals, had displayed such hatred to all political progress. Instead of yielding to the royal will, they renewed their claim for equality of rights with the mother country, and, when this was refused them, they unsheathed the sword to fight for independence. A life-and-death struggle began in which the South Americans displayed virtues which no one had expected of them; their fortitude in misfortune, their self-denial, their

enduring of unspeakable distresses, their sacrifice of peace and prosperity, of strength and of life, have been seldom paralleled in human history. Assembling in masses

they would attempt a blow and, if it failed, they scattered like dust before the wind. Their troops were composed of peasant farmers, of workers in the sugar mills and in the mines, who were accustomed to live on horseback, and in the open air, and who passed readily, by long habit, from plenty to want; they had the advantage of requiring no fixed centre of operations, no strategy, no organization and no commissary. To-day they might be in the depths of want and to-morrow rejoicing in a lucky conquest; and this wild life was their vital breath, for it gave them opportunity to satisfy, now a private revenge, and now the longing of a sudden impulse. Ferdinand sent his

1815.

cruel general Morillo (a second Alba), to South America, and with him the Inquisitor Torries,



NATIVE OF BRAZIL.



INDIAN OF THE AMAZON.

charged with extraordinary powers. But Rio de la Plata had so solidly established her independence and her republican constitution, that her success encouraged the other states to persevere even though their struggle was a harder one. Three republics, La Plata, Bolivia, and Uruguay were established,



PARAGUAY INDIAN.

demning to death every Spaniard found supporting the royal cause. A fearful, fluctuating, dangerous, arduous and wasting war arose between Bolivar and Morillo, Bolivar being supported by the black general, Paez. When the Spaniards conquered, the blood of Republicans flowed in streams; to revenge

1816. and Paraguay was for a long time governed by the astute advocate, Dr. Francia, with dictatorial power. The war for freedom in New Granada and Peru is connected with the Creole Simon Bolivar, of Caraccas. This distinguished general and statesman chose Washington for his model, and dedicated his energy and his fortune to the redemption of his people, not departing from his great purpose even when ingratitude was heaped upon him. Venezuela had declared her independence as early as 1811, but a terrible earthquake almost totally destroyed the capital Caracas, and killed in Valencia

March 1812. twenty thousand people. This was interpreted by the priests as the punishment of heaven for their rebellion, and used cunningly to bring the land back to Spanish rule. The unsparing cruelty with which the vindictive Spaniards hunted down the republicans, brought the extinguished fire to a fresh conflagration. Bolivar led 600 men across the Andes; thousands rushed to his standard to avenge the death of the slaughtered patriots; the National Assembly of New Granada hailed him as their saviour and appointed him Dictator; and he organized at once a war to the knife, in the decree of Trujillo, con-



SIMON BOLIVAR.

them, Bolivar executed eight hundred Spanish prisoners. The Spaniards acquired a terrible ally in the Llaneros, who like the Gauchos of the Pampas, lived a Bedouin life on the grass plains of Terra Firma, who were capable of great endurance and abstinence, and who as troopers fought with the pike, the lasso, and the fire-brand. Bolivar was compelled to lay down his command and to seek safety in flight to San Domingo. The Royalists exulted now in corpses, in confiscation, and in forced contributions. But Bolivar soon returned; his appearance restored the sinking courage of the Republicans and victories increased his power. Venezuela and New Grenada formed a union, choosing Bolivar as captain-general, and at the Con-

**Dec. 17, 1819.** gress of Angostura the two republics were united into the single free state, Colombia. The Spaniards now determined to send a new army to America. This was the same which, by raising the standard of rebellion, had brought about the rule of the Cortes in Spain. But even the Cortes would not recognize the independence of the colonies. So the war was renewed, but to the disadvantage of the discordant Spaniards. Colombia conquered her liberty and chose Bolivar as president. A treaty of commerce united the young republic to North America. Bolivar next appeared as the savior and liberator of Peru. This land with the help of St. Martin, the cunning and enterprising liberator of Chili, and of the Englishman Cochrane, had adopted a republican constitution and named St. Martin as protector. Discord however weakened the power of the Republicans; St. Martin resigned and returned to Chili; the Spaniards prevailed; the republic seemed lost. At this crisis Bolivar appeared. The discordant Spaniards were beaten and forced to withdraw, and the liberator was

**1824.** named protector for life by the Congress in Lima. This heaping of power and of honor upon Bolivar awakened the envy and the anxiety of the Republicans. Conspirators lay in wait to kill him; he was accused of ambitious designs and treasonable purposes. He resigned his office with deep sorrow, and death soon freed him from labor and from care. But this did not establish harmony among the shattered and disverged states. Their history, since their independence, is painfully marked with jealousies and discord.

§ 854. *The Chilean Civil War.*—Chili adopted a constitution in 1833 resembling  
**1833.** that of the United States. This constitution was revised in 1874, so  
**1874.** that the voting franchise was extended, public education provided for, and religious tolerance secured. But the Liberal party, as it became supreme, split into factions, and quarreled about leadership and the "spoils." The radicals, under the lead of Balmaceda, soon became more numerous than the moderates, their leader being the most popular man in Chili, and indeed in South America. He had been minister of war during the campaigns against Peru, and minister of the Argentine Republic in a period of great importance. He was easily elected president by an overwhelming majority, and for a while received enthusiastic support. He established a complete system of popular education, secularized the cemeteries, separated church and state, and banished sectarian teaching from the schools. He built railroads, dredged harbors, erected wharves, and lifted the country into great prosperity.

But who can appease the hunger of the office-seeker? The moderate Liberals joined forces with the Nationalists or Monntvarists to drive the President from power. An opposition Congress passed hostile laws which he vetoed, and by a vote of censure forced his cabinet to resign. Balmaceda now resorted to violent and unconstitutional



measures, and finally declared himself dictator and proclaimed martial law. A desperate civil war ensued, which ended in the defeat of Balmaceda, and the ruin of his adherents.

The provisional government, established at Santiago by the revolutionary Junta, **1891.** was then formerly recognized by foreign governments, and the reconstruction of Chili begun. Admiral Jorge Montt was inaugurated first president under the new constitution; December 26, 1891.

Since then amnesty has been granted to most of those who took part in the rebellion. And as Balmaceda committed suicide, he has ceased to trouble the country.

§ 855. *Brazil*.—Brazil was discovered in 1499, by Vincent Pencon, who sailed

**1499.** as far as the Amazon, and thence to the mouth of the Orinoco. But Cabral, a Portuguese commander, reached the Brazilian coast the next year, and sent word of his discovery to the King at Lisbon. Emanuel sent Amerigo Vespucci to explore the country, but no attempt to introduce organized authority was made, until

**1531.** Martin de Sousa discovered Rio de Janeiro on the first of January 1531. Captaincies were then established, and settlements begun. Thomé de Sousa

**1549.** became governor-general, and arrived at Bahia in April, 1549, with three hundred and twenty persons in the King's pay, three hundred colonists, four hundred convicts, and six Jesuits. Nobrega, one of these Jesuits, established the college of St. Paul, which diffused knowledge through Brazil, and became at once the centre of colonization and of civilization.

The French occupied Rio Janeiro in 1558, but the treacherous conduct of Vil-

**1558.** ligagnon toward the Huguenot settlers, weakened their settlement, and

**1567.** the Portuguese acquired it in 1567.

From 1578 to 1640 Brazil, along with Portugal, was under the Spanish crown.

Accordingly, the Dutch attacked it in the period of their strength, and Maurice, of Nassau, established Dutch supremacy along the Brazilian coast, from the San Francisco River to Maranhão.

But in 1640 a revolution restored the throne of Portugal to the house of

**1640.** Braganza, just in time to rescue Brazil from the hands of Holland. The inhabitants of San Paulo however longed for independence, and would have achieved it, but for their chosen king, Amador, who declared for Portugal, and retired to a convent, leaving them without a leader. Yet fourteen years elapsed before the Dutch were driven out of the country, and in 1710 the Portuguese were compelled to defend Rio de Janeiro against a French invasion commanded by Duclerc.

San Paulo attracted settlers, and the colonists married frequently with the natives of the vicinity. New colonies were settled in the north and west; and a hardy and adventurous people spread over the country.

The Portuguese minister, Pombal, the enemy of the Jesuits, attacked them in Brazil, and expelled them from the country in 1760; and reorganized the country, abolishing feudal privileges, and admitting all races to equal rights before the law. In

**1789.** 1789 a project was formed in Minas to throw off the yoke of Portugal, but the conspirators were detected and banished, except their leader, Silva Xavier, who died upon the scaffold. When Napoleon Bonaparte resolved to conquer Spain, the prince regent of Portugal, afterward King John VI., took refuge in Brazil.

**1808.** He and the Queen, Maria, arrived at Bahia on the 21st of January, 1808, and were welcomed with great enthusiasm.

Dom John opened the ports of Brazil to foreign commerce, excepting from the general privilege of export under any flag, only diamonds and Brazil wood. English artisans and shipbuilders, German engineers, French manufacturers, and Swedish iron founders entered the country, and created plants of industry. But the Brazilians paid the expenses of the kingdom, and the Portuguese governed the court. The foreign nobility were ignorant and profligate and greedy; they delayed and perverted justice, and confusion reigned in all departments of government. Republican feeling developed rapidly, and the King surrounded himself with troops from Portugal. These revolted in 1821, and compelled Dom John to accept the system established by the Lisbon revolution of 1820. Deputies were elected to the Cortes of Lisbon, and arriving there, rebuked the Portuguese for beginning to frame a constitution in their absence.

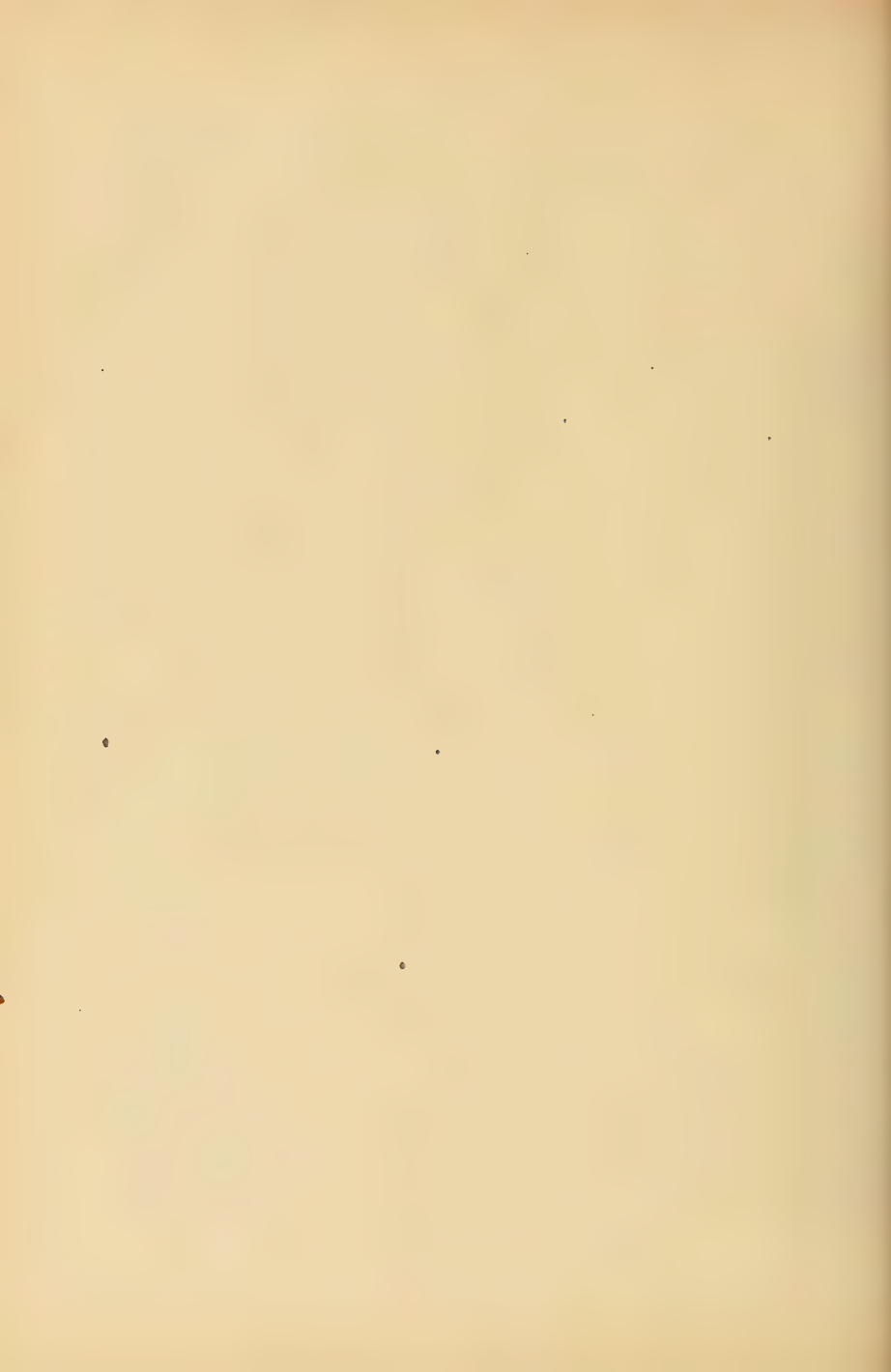
**1821.** Angry scenes resulted. Dom Pedro, the prince and favorite of Brazil, was ordered to Europe. The news excited great uproar in Brazil. The Portuguese were driven out; Dom Pedro, the prince regent, was proclaimed emperor, and before the end of 1823 the independence of Brazil and the imperial authority were everywhere acknowledged.

§ 856. In 1824 the Emperor adopted a liberal constitution, saving himself from **1824.** overthrow, and Brazil from anarchy. But in 1828 his popularity **1828.** waned; the defeat of his army by the Argentines, troubles with foreign powers, and financial embarrassments combined to ruin him. A bold attempt to destroy the liberal party ended in his own abdication.

A regency now administered the government, until Dom Pedro II. became **1840.** emperor in 1840. Order was established, the slave trade abolished, and Rosas, the dictator of Buenos Ayres, effectually crushed. In 1870 Lopez, the daring dictator of Paraguay, was destroyed by the Brazilians, after a desperate struggle of

**1871.** six years, involving an immense expenditure of life and money. In 1871 the first step was taken toward the abolition of slavery; enterprises of all kinds began to multiply, and public instruction advanced quite rapidly. But the frequent absences of the Emperor, and the popular dislike of his daughter and heir, led to the conspiracy **1889.** that drove him from the throne, and established the republic of 1889.

Fonseca convened a Congress elected by universal suffrage, and a new constitution was **1891.** proclaimed February 24, 1891. A federal republic was established, with a president and two houses. But in November, Peixoto, the vice-president, drove Fonseca from office, and a period of confusion followed. Rio Grande do Sul revolted, and the movement spread to other States. Peixoto struggled desperately with his difficulties, but finally Admiral Mello withdrew from his cabinet, and, forming a conspiracy of naval officers, demanded of Peixoto that he resign. This the latter refused, and the intervention of foreign officers was necessary to prevent Mello shelling the city of Rio de Janeiro. A Brazilian ship, assailing an American vessel, was fired into by Admiral Benham of the United States Navy, and compelled to strike her **1903.** colors. Mello however retired wounded from the conflict, and Da Gama took command of the forces combined against Peixoto, who maintained himself with difficulty.





# TABLE OF SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS.

ASSYRIAN KINGS.						B. C.		B. C.
Nimrod or Belus,	.	.	.	.	.	2245	Belshazzar,	539-538
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		EGYPTIAN KINGS (PHARAOHS).	
Ninus,	.	.	.	.	.	2069	Menes,	abt. 3000
Ninyas,	.	.	.	.	.	2017	* * * *	*
Semiramis,	.	.	.	.	.	2007	Khufa (Cheops),	" 2500
Ninyas,	.	.	.	.	.	1965	Möris,	" 2200
Arius,	.	.	.	.	.	1927	* * * *	*
Aralius,	.	.	.	.	.	1897	Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings,	2100-1580
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		Aahmes I.,	1580
Belochus,	.	.	.	.	.	1446	Amenhotep,	abt. 1560
Belatores,	.	.	.	.	.	1421	Thothmes I.,	" 1540
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		Thothmes II. and Hatasoo,	" 1520
Rimmon-nirari I.,	.	.	.	.	.	1320	Thothmes III.,	" 1500
Salmanasser I.,	.	.	.	.	.	1300	Amenhotep II.,	" 1480
Tiglath-adar I.,	.	.	.	.	.	1280	Thothmes IV.,	" 1460
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		Amenhotep III.,	" 1440
Tiglath-pileser I.,	.	.	.	.	.	1140	Amenhotep IV.,	" 1420
Assur-bel-Kala,	.	.	.	.	.	1110	Rameses I.,	" 1400
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		Seti Sesostris,	1400
Assur-dân II.,	.	.	.	.	.	911	Rameses II.,	1388
Rimmon-nirari II.,	.	.	.	.	.	889	Meneptah,	1300
Assur-natsir-pal,	.	.	.	.	.	883	* * * *	*
Salmanasser II.,	.	.	.	.	.	858	Rameses III.,	1200
Samas Rimmon II.,	.	.	.	.	.	823-810	* * * *	*
* * * *	*	*	*	*	*		Shabat,	700
Assur-nirari,	.	.	.	.	.	753	Tirhakah,	693
Tiglath-pileser II.,	.	.	.	.	.	745	Psammetichus I.,	653
Salmanasser IV.,	.	.	.	.	.	727	Necho II.,	610
Sargon II., (the Tartan),	.	.	.	.	.	722	Psammetichus II.,	595
Sennacherib,	.	.	.	.	.	705	Hophra,	590
Assur-hadon,	.	.	.	.	.	681	Amasis,	570
Assur-bani-pal,	.	.	.	.	.	663	Psammetichus III.,	526
Assur-hadon II., (Sardanapalus),	.	.	.	.	.	625 605	Persian Rule,	525-424
BABYLONIAN KINGS.						B. C.	Armymrtæus,	424-406
Nabonassar,	.	.	.	.	.	747	HEBREW KINGS.	
Ukinziru,	.	.	.	.	.	732-729	Saul,	1050
Tiglath-pileser (of Assyria),	.	.	.	.	.	729-722	David,	1030
Merodach-baladan II.,	.	.	.	.	.	722	Solomon,	1000
Assyrian Viceroys,	.	.	.	.	.	705-640	KINGS OF JUDAH.	
Nabu-abla-utzar (Nabopolassar),	.	.	.	.	.	640	Rehoboam,	975
Nebuchadnezzar,	.	.	.	.	.	625	Alijah,	958
Evil Merodach,	.	.	.	.	.	561	Asa,	955
Neiglissar,	.	.	.	.	.	559	Jehoshaphat,	914
Labanatus,	.	.	.	.	.	556	Jehoram,	889
Nabonadius,	.	.	.	.	.	551		

	B. C.		B. C.
Abaziah, . . . . .	885	KINGS OF MACEDON.	
Athaliah, . . . . .	884	Caranus, . . . . .	761
Joaz or Jehoahaz, . . . . .	878	Perdiccas I., . . . . .	729
Amaziah, . . . . .	839	Argæus I., . . . . .	684
Uzziah or Azariah, . . . . .	810	Philip I., . . . . .	640
Jotham, . . . . .	758	* * * * *	
Abaz, . . . . .	742	Amyntas I., . . . . .	540
Hezekiah, . . . . .	725	Alexander I., . . . . .	500
Manasseh, . . . . .	695	Perdiccas II., . . . . .	454
Amon, . . . . .	643	Archelaus, . . . . .	413
Josiah, . . . . .	638	Pausanias, . . . . .	394
Jehoahaz, . . . . .	608	Amyntas II., . . . . .	393
Jehoiakin, . . . . .	608	Argæus II., . . . . .	392
Jehoiachim, . . . . .	598	Amyntas II., . . . . .	390
Zedekiah, . . . . .	596-588	Alexander II., . . . . .	369
KINGS OF ISRAEL.		Perdiccas III., . . . . .	364
Jeroboam, . . . . .	975	Philip II., . . . . .	360
Nadab, . . . . .	954	Alexander III., the Great, . . . . .	336
Baashah, . . . . .	953	Philip III., Aridæus, . . . . .	323
Elah, . . . . .	930	Kassander, . . . . .	316
Zimri, . . . . .	929	Alexander V., . . . . .	298
Omri, . . . . .	925	Demetrius I., Poliorcetes, . . . . .	294
Ahab, . . . . .	918	Antigonus Gonatas, . . . . .	277
Abaziah, . . . . .	897	Demetrius II., . . . . .	239 <sup>a</sup>
Jehoram or Joram, . . . . .	896	Philip IV., . . . . .	232
Jehu, . . . . .	884	Antigonus Doson, . . . . .	229
Jehoahaz, . . . . .	857	Philip V., . . . . .	220
Jehoash, . . . . .	841	Persens, . . . . .	178-168
Jeroboam II., . . . . .	825	SELEUCIDS OF SYRIA.	
Anarchy, . . . . .	784-773	Seleucus Nicator, . . . . .	301
Zechariah, . . . . .	773	Antiochus I., Soter, . . . . .	280
Shallum, . . . . .	772	Antiochus II., Theos, . . . . .	261
Menahem, . . . . .	772	Seleucus II., . . . . .	246
Pekahiah, . . . . .	761	Seleucus III., Ceraunus, . . . . .	226
Pekah, . . . . .	759	Antiochus III., the Great, . . . . .	224
Hoshea, . . . . .	730-721	Seleucus Philopator, . . . . .	187
KINGS OF MEDIA.		Antiochus IV., Theos-Epiphanes, . . . . .	176
Arbaces, . . . . .	842	Antiochus V., Eupator, . . . . .	164
* * * * *		Demetrius Soter, . . . . .	162
Deioces, . . . . .	709	Alexander Bala, . . . . .	150
Phraortes or Arphaxad, . . . . .	656	Demetrius Nicator, . . . . .	146
Cyaxares, . . . . .	632	Antiochus VI., Sidetes, . . . . .	137
Astiages, . . . . .	594-558	Demetrius Nicator, . . . . .	128
KINGS OF PERSIA.		Antiochus VII., Grypus, . . . . .	125
Cyrus, . . . . .	558	Antiochus VIII., . . . . .	111
Cambyses, . . . . .	529	Seleucus V., . . . . .	95
Darius Hystaspes, . . . . .	521	Antiochus IX., Eusebes, . . . . .	94
Xerxes, . . . . .	485	Philip, . . . . .	85
Artaxerxes I., Longimanus, . . . . .	465	Tigranes of Armenia, . . . . .	83
Darius II., Nothus, . . . . .	425	Antiochus X., . . . . .	69-65
Artaxerxes II., Mnemon, . . . . .	405	PTOLEMIES OF EGYPT.	
Artaxerxes III., Ochus, . . . . .	359	Ptolemy I., Soter, . . . . .	323
Arses, . . . . .	338	Ptolemy II., Philadelphus, . . . . .	280
Darius III., Codomanus, . . . . .	336-331	Ptolemy III., Energetes, . . . . .	247
		Ptolemy IV., Philopator, . . . . .	221

	B. C.	A. D.	
Ptolemy V., Epiphanes, . . . . .	205	Gordianus, . . . . . 237	
Ptolemy VI., Philometor, . . . . .	181	Balbinus and Pupienus, . . . . . 238	
Ptolemy VII., Energetes, . . . . .	146	Gordian III., . . . . . 238	
Ptolemy VIII., Soter II. and Cleopatra I., . . . . .	117	Philip Arabs, . . . . . 244	
Alexander I., and Cleopatra I., . . . . .	107	Decius, . . . . . 249	
Ptolemy VIII., . . . . .	89	Gallienus, . . . . . 260	
Alexander II., and Cleopatra I., . . . . .	81	Claudius II., . . . . . 268	
Ptolemy IX., Auletes, . . . . .	80	Aurelianus, . . . . . 270	
Berenice and Tryphæna, . . . . .	58	Tacitus, . . . . . 275	
Ptolemy IX., . . . . .	55	Probus, . . . . . 276	
Ptolemy X., and Cleopatra II., . . . . .	51	Carus, . . . . . 282	
Cleopatra II., . . . . .	43-30	Diocletian, . . . . . 284	
MACCABEES OF JUDEA.		Constantius I., Chlorus, . . . . . 305	
Judas Maccabæus, . . . . .	165	Constantine, the Great, . . . . . 306	
Jonathan Maccabæus, . . . . .	160	Constantius II., . . . . . 337	
Simon Maccabæus, . . . . .	143	Julian, the Apostate, . . . . . 361	
John Hyrcanus I., . . . . .	135	Jovian, . . . . . 363-364	
Judas, Aristobulus, . . . . .	107-70	EMPERORS OF THE WEST.	
KINGS OF ROME.		Valentinian, . . . . .	364
Romulus, . . . . .	753	Gratian, . . . . .	375
Numa Pompilius, . . . . .	715	Valentinian II., . . . . .	383
Tullus Hostilius, . . . . .	672	Engenius, . . . . .	392
Anus Marcius, . . . . .	640	Theodosius, the Great, . . . . .	394
Tarquinius Priscus, . . . . .	615	Honorius, . . . . .	395
Servius Tullius, . . . . .	578	Valentinian III., . . . . .	425
Tarquinius Superbus, . . . . .	534-509	Maximus, . . . . .	455
ROMAN EMPERORS.		Avitus, . . . . .	455
<i>The Cæsars.</i>		Marjorian, . . . . .	457
Augustus, . . . . .	30	Severus, . . . . .	461
	A. D.	Autemius, . . . . .	467
Tiberius, . . . . .	14	Olybrius, . . . . .	472
Caligula, . . . . .	37	Glycerius, . . . . .	473
Claudius, . . . . .	41	Nepos, . . . . .	473
Nero, . . . . .	54	Romulus Augustulus, . . . . .	475-476
Galba, . . . . .	68	EMPERORS OF THE EAST.	
Otho, . . . . .	68	Valens, . . . . .	364
Vitellius, . . . . .	68	Theodosius, the Great, . . . . .	379
Vespasian, . . . . .	69	Arcadius, . . . . .	395
Titus, . . . . .	79	Theodosius II., . . . . .	408
Domitian, . . . . .	81	Marcian, . . . . .	450
<i>The Good Emperors.</i>		Leo I., . . . . .	457
Nerva, . . . . .	96	Leo II., . . . . .	474
Trajan, . . . . .	98	Zeno, . . . . .	474
Hadrian, . . . . .	117	Anastasius I., . . . . .	491
Antoninus Pius, . . . . .	138	Justin I., . . . . .	518
Marcus Aurelius, . . . . .	161	Justinian I., . . . . .	527
<i>The Military Despots.</i>		Justin II., . . . . .	565
Commodus, . . . . .	180	Tiberius II., . . . . .	578
Pertinax, . . . . .	193	Maurice, . . . . .	582
Septimius Severus, . . . . .	193	Phocas, . . . . .	602
Caracalla, . . . . .	211	Heraclius, . . . . .	610
Heliogabalus, . . . . .	218	Constantine III., Heracleonas, . . . . .	641
Alexander Severus, . . . . .	222	Constans II., . . . . .	641
Maximinus, . . . . .	235	Constantine IV., Pogonatus, . . . . .	668
		Justinian II., . . . . .	685



	A. D.		A. D.
Leontius, . . . . .	695	Peter de Courtenay, . . . . .	1216
Tiberius III., Aspimar, . . . . .	698	Robert de Courtenay, . . . . .	1221
Justinian II., . . . . .	705	Baldwin II., . . . . .	1228
Philippicus-Bardanes, . . . . .	711	<i>The Palæologi.</i>	
Anastasius II., . . . . .	713	Michael VIII., . . . . .	1261
Theodosius III., . . . . .	716	Andronicus II., Palæologus, . . . . .	1282
<i>The Isaurians.</i>		Andronicus III., . . . . .	1328
Leo III., the Isaurian, . . . . .	718	John Palæologus I., . . . . .	1341
Constantine V., Copronymus, . . . . .	741	Manuel II., Palæologus, . . . . .	1391
Leo IV., . . . . .	775	John Palæologus II., . . . . .	1425
Constantine VI., . . . . .	780	Constantine XIII., Palæologus, . . . . .	1448-1453
Irene, . . . . .	797	<b>KINGS OF PERSIA (SASSANIDES).</b>	
Nicephorus I., Logothetes, . . . . .	802	Artaxerxes I., . . . . .	226
Stauracius, . . . . .	811	Sapor I., . . . . .	240
Michael I., . . . . .	811	Hormisdas I., . . . . .	272
Leo V., the Armenian, . . . . .	813	Varanes I., . . . . .	273
Michael II., the Stammerer, . . . . .	820	Varanes II., . . . . .	277
Theophilus, . . . . .	829	Varanes III., . . . . .	293
Michael III., Porphyrogenitus, . . . . .	842	Narses, . . . . .	294
<i>The Macedonians.</i>		Hormisdas II., . . . . .	301
Basilus I., the Macedonian, . . . . .	867	Sapor II., . . . . .	309
Leo VI., . . . . .	886	Artaxerxes II., . . . . .	380
Constantine VII. and Alexander, . . . . .	911	Sapor III., . . . . .	385
Romanus Lecapenus, . . . . .	919	Varanes IV., . . . . .	390
Constantine VIII., . . . . .	928	Yezdejird I., . . . . .	404
Romanus II., . . . . .	959	Varanes V., . . . . .	420
Nicephorus II., Phocas, . . . . .	963	Yezdejird II., . . . . .	440
John I., Zimisces, . . . . .	969	Hormisdas III., . . . . .	457
Basilus II., . . . . .	976	Feroze, . . . . .	458
Constantine IX., . . . . .	1025	Pallas, . . . . .	484
Romanus III., Argyropulus, . . . . .	1028	Kobad, . . . . .	486
Michael IV., Paphlagonian, . . . . .	1034	Jamaspes, . . . . .	497
Michael V., Calaphates, . . . . .	1041	Kobad, . . . . .	497
Constantine X., Monomachus, . . . . .	1042	Chosroes I., . . . . .	531
Theodora, . . . . .	1054	Hormisdas IV., . . . . .	590
Michael VI., Stratiotes, . . . . .	1056	Chosroes II., . . . . .	591
<i>The Comneni.</i>		Siroes, . . . . .	628
Isaac I., Comnenus, . . . . .	1057	Artaxerxes III., . . . . .	629
Constantine XI., Ducas, . . . . .	1059	Purandokt, . . . . .	630
Romanus IV., Diogenes, . . . . .	1067	Shenendeh, . . . . .	631
Michael VII., Parapinaces, . . . . .	1071	Arzemdokt, . . . . .	631
Nicephorus III., . . . . .	1078	Kesra, . . . . .	631
Alexius I., Comnenus, . . . . .	1081	Ferokhdad, . . . . .	632
John Comnenus, . . . . .	1118	Yezdejird III., . . . . .	632-641
Manuel I., Comnenus, . . . . .	1143	<b>KINGS OF ITALY (MEDIEVAL).</b>	
Alexius II., Comnenus, . . . . .	1180	Odoacer, . . . . .	476
Andronicus I., Comnenus, . . . . .	1183	<i>Gothic Kings.</i>	
Isaac II., Angelus-Comnenus, . . . . .	1185	Theodoric, . . . . .	493
Alexius III., Angelus, . . . . .	1195	Athalaric, . . . . .	526
Isaac II., and Alexius IV., . . . . .	1203	Theodatus, . . . . .	534
Alexius V., . . . . .	1204	Vitiges, . . . . .	536
<i>Latin Emperors.</i>		Theodebald (Hildebald), . . . . .	540
Baldwin I., of Flanders, . . . . .	1204	Totila, . . . . .	541-552
Henry I., . . . . .	1206	<i>Lombard Kings.</i>	
		Alboin, . . . . .	568

	A. D.		A. D.
Cleoph,	573	Stephen IV.,	816
Autharis,	575	Pascal I.,	817
Agilulph,	591	Eugenius,	824
Adaloald,	615	Valentinus,	827
Arioald,	625	Gregory IV.,	827
Rotharis,	636	Sergius II.,	844
Rodoald,	652	Leo IV.,	847
Aribert I.,	653	Benedict III.,	855
Bertharit and Godebert,	661	Nicholas I., the Great,	858
Grimoald,	662	Adrian II.,	867
Bertharit,	671	John VIII.,	872
Cunibert,	686	Marinus, Martin II.,	882
Luitbert,	700	Adrian III.,	884
Ragimbert,	701	Stephen V.,	885
Aribert II.,	701	Formosus,	891
Ansprand,	712	Boniface,	896
Luitprand,	712	Stephen VI.,	897
Hildebrand,	744	Romanus,	897
Rachis,	744	Theodorus II.,	898
Astolph,	749	John IX.,	898
Desiderius,	756-774	Benedict IV.,	900
		Leo V.,	903
		Sergius III.,	904
		Anastasius III.,	911
		Landonius,	913
Gregory the Great,	590	John X.,	914
Sabinianus,	604	Leo VI.,	928
Boniface III.,	606	Stephen VII.,	929
Boniface IV.,	607	John XI.,	931
Deusdedit,	614	Leo VII.,	936
Boniface V.,	617	Stephen VIII.,	939
Honorius I.,	625	Marinus II., (Martin III.)	942
Severius,	640	Agapetus II.,	946
John IV.,	640	John XII.,	956
Theodorus I.,	642	Leo VIII.,	963
Martin I.,	649	Benedict V.,	964
Eugenius I.,	654	John XIII.,	965
Vitalianus,	657	Benedict VI.,	972
Adeodatus,	672	Domnus II.,	974
Dominus I.,	676	Benedict VII.,	975
Agathon,	678	John XIV.,	984
Leo II.,	682	John XV.,	984
Benedict II.,	684	John XVI.,	985
John V.,	685	Gregory V.,	996
Conon,	686	Silvester II.,	999
Sergius,	687	John XVII.,	1003
John VI.,	701	John XVIII.,	1003
John VII.,	705	Sergius IV.,	1009
Sisinnius,	708	Benedict VIII.,	1012
Constantine,	708	John XIX.,	1024
Gregory II.,	715	Benedict IX.,	1033
Gregory III.,	731	Gregory VI.,	1044
Zacharias,	741	Clement II.,	1046
Stephen II.,	752	Damasus II.,	1048
Paul I.,	757	Leo IX.,	1048
Stephen III.,	768	Victor II.,	1055
Adrian I.,	772		
Leo III.,	795		

## THE POPES.

	A. D.		A. D.
Stephen IX., . . . . .	1057	Pius II., . . . . .	1458
Nicholas II., . . . . .	1058	Paul II., . . . . .	1464
Alexander II., . . . . .	1061	Sixtus IV., . . . . .	1471
Gregory VII., (Hildebrand), . . . . .	1073	Innocent VIII., . . . . .	1484
Victor III. Didier, . . . . .	1086	Alexander VI., . . . . .	1492
Urban II., . . . . .	1088	Pius III., . . . . .	1503
Pascal II., Ranieri, . . . . .	1099	Julius II., . . . . .	1503
Gelasius II., . . . . .	1118	Leo X., . . . . .	1513
Calixtus II., . . . . .	1119	Adrian VI., . . . . .	1522
Honorius II., . . . . .	1124	Clement VII., . . . . .	1523
Innocent II., . . . . .	1130	Paul III., . . . . .	1534
Celestine II., . . . . .	1143	Julius III., . . . . .	1550
Lucius II., . . . . .	1144	Marcellus II., . . . . .	1555
Eugenius III., . . . . .	1145	Paul IV., . . . . .	1555
Anastasius IV., . . . . .	1153	Pius IV., . . . . .	1559
Adrian IV., . . . . .	1154	St. Pius V., . . . . .	1566
Alexander III., . . . . .	1159	Gregory XIII., . . . . .	1572
Lucius III., . . . . .	1181	Sixtus V., . . . . .	1585
Urban III., . . . . .	1185	Urban VII., . . . . .	1590
Gregory VIII., . . . . .	1187	Gregory XIV., . . . . .	1590
Clement III., . . . . .	1187	Innocent IX., . . . . .	1591
Celestine III., . . . . .	1191	Clement VIII., . . . . .	1592
Innocent III., . . . . .	1198	Leo XI., . . . . .	1605
Honorius III., . . . . .	1216	Paul V., . . . . .	1605
Gregory IX., . . . . .	1227	Gregory XV., . . . . .	1621
Celestine IV., . . . . .	1241	Urban VIII., . . . . .	1623
Innocent IV., . . . . .	1243	Innocent X., . . . . .	1644
Alexander IV., . . . . .	1254	Alexander VII., . . . . .	1655
Urban IV., . . . . .	1261	Clement IX., . . . . .	1667
Clement IV., . . . . .	1265	Clement X., . . . . .	1670
Gregory X., . . . . .	1271	Innocent XI., . . . . .	1676
Innocent V., . . . . .	1276	Alexander VIII., . . . . .	1689
Adrian V., . . . . .	1276	Innocent XII., . . . . .	1691
John XX., . . . . .	1276	Clement XI., . . . . .	1700
Nicholas III., . . . . .	1277	Innocent XIII., . . . . .	1721
Martin IV., . . . . .	1281	Benedict XIII., . . . . .	1724
Honorius IV., . . . . .	1285	Clement XII., . . . . .	1730
Nicholas IV., . . . . .	1288	Benedict XIV., . . . . .	1740
St. Celestine V., . . . . .	1294	Clement XIII., . . . . .	1758
Boniface VIII., . . . . .	1294	Clement XIV., . . . . .	1769
Benedict XI., . . . . .	1303	Pius VI., . . . . .	1775
Clement V., . . . . .	1305	Pius VII., . . . . .	1800
John XXII., . . . . .	1316	Leo XII., . . . . .	1823
Benedict XII., . . . . .	1334	Pius VIII., . . . . .	1829
Clement VI., . . . . .	1342	Gregory XVI., . . . . .	1831
Innocent VI., . . . . .	1352	Pius IX., . . . . .	1846
Urban V., . . . . .	1362	Leo XIII., . . . . .	1878-
Gregory XI., . . . . .	1370		
Urban VI., . . . . .	1378		
Boniface IX., . . . . .	1389		
Innocent VII., . . . . .	1404	Abu Bekr, . . . . .	632
Alexander V., . . . . .	1409	Omar I., . . . . .	634
John XXIII., . . . . .	1410	Othman, . . . . .	644
Martin V., . . . . .	1417	Ali, . . . . .	656
Eugenius IV., . . . . .	1431	Hassan, . . . . .	661
Nicholas V., . . . . .	1447	The Ommiads, . . . . .	661-750
Calixtus III., . . . . .	1455	The Abbassides, . . . . .	750-1258
		Harun-al-Raschid, . . . . .	786-809

## CALIPHS OF ARABIA.



KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

*Anglo Saxon Kings.*

	A. D.
Egbert, . . . . .	827
Ethelwolf, . . . . .	837
Ethelbald, . . . . .	857
Ethelbert, . . . . .	860
Ethelred I., . . . . .	866
Alfred the Great, . . . . .	871
Edward the Elder, . . . . .	901
Athelstan, . . . . .	925
Edmund I., . . . . .	940
Edred, . . . . .	946
Edwy, . . . . .	955
Edgar, . . . . .	957
Edward the Martyr, . . . . .	975
Ethelred II., . . . . .	979
Smeyn, . . . . .	1013
Ethelred II., . . . . .	1014
Edmund Ironside, . . . . .	1016

*Danish Kings.*

Canute the Great, . . . . .	1017
Harold I., Harefoot, . . . . .	1035
Hardicanute, . . . . .	1039

*Saxon Kings.*

Edward the Confessor, . . . . .	1042
Harold II., . . . . .	1066

*Norman Kings.*

William the Conqueror, . . . . .	1066
William Rufus, . . . . .	1087
Henry I., . . . . .	1100
Stephen, . . . . .	1135

*The Plantagenets.*

Henry II., Plantagenet, . . . . .	1154
Richard I., Cœur de Lion, . . . . .	1189
John, . . . . .	1199
Henry III., . . . . .	1216
Edward I., . . . . .	1272
Edward II., . . . . .	1307
Edward III., . . . . .	1327
Richard II., . . . . .	1377

*House of Lancaster.*

Henry IV., . . . . .	1399
Henry V., . . . . .	1413
Henry VI., . . . . .	1422

*House of York.*

Edward IV., . . . . .	1461
Edward V., . . . . .	1483
Richard III., . . . . .	1483

*House of Tudor.*

Henry VII., . . . . .	1485
Henry VIII., . . . . .	1509
Edward VI., . . . . .	1547
Mary, . . . . .	1553
Elizabeth, . . . . .	1558

*House of Stuart.*

	A. D.
James I., . . . . .	1603
Charles I., . . . . .	1625
The Commonwealth, . . . . .	1649
Charles II., . . . . .	1660
James II., . . . . .	1685
William III., . . . . .	1689
Anne, . . . . .	1702

*House of Brunswick.*

George I., . . . . .	1714
George II., . . . . .	1727
George III., . . . . .	1760
George IV., . . . . .	1820
William IV., . . . . .	1830
Victoria, . . . . .	1837—

KINGS AND QUEENS OF SCOTLAND.

*House of Kenneth.*

Fergus II., . . . . .	404
Eugenius II., . . . . .	420
Dongardus, . . . . .	451
Constantine I., . . . . .	457
Congallus I., . . . . .	479
Goranus, . . . . .	501
Eugenius III., . . . . .	535
Congallus II., . . . . .	558
Kinnatellus, . . . . .	569
Aidanus, . . . . .	570
Kenneth, . . . . .	605
Eugenius IV., . . . . .	606
Ferchard I., . . . . .	621
Donald IV., . . . . .	632
Ferchard II., . . . . .	646
Malduinus, . . . . .	664
Eugenius V., . . . . .	684
Eugenius VI., . . . . .	688
Amberkeletus, . . . . .	698
Eugenius VII., . . . . .	699
Mordachus, . . . . .	715
Etfinus, . . . . .	730
Eugenius VIII., . . . . .	761
Fergus III., . . . . .	764
Solvathius, . . . . .	767
Achaisus, . . . . .	787
Congallus III., . . . . .	819
Dongal, . . . . .	824
Alpine, . . . . .	831
Kenneth II., . . . . .	834
Donald V., . . . . .	854
Constantine II., . . . . .	858
Eth, . . . . .	874
Gregory, the Great, . . . . .	876
Donald VI., . . . . .	893
Constantine III., . . . . .	904
Malcolm I., . . . . .	944
Indulfus, . . . . .	953

	A. D.		A. D.
Duff, . . . . .	961	Clovis III., . . . . .	691
Cullen, . . . . .	965	Childebert III., . . . . .	695
Kenneth III., . . . . .	970	Dagobert III., . . . . .	711
Constantine IV., . . . . .	994	Chilperic II., . . . . .	715
Kenneth IV., . . . . .	995	Clotaire IV., . . . . .	717
Malcolm II., . . . . .	1003	Chilperic II., . . . . .	720
Duncan I., . . . . .	1033	Thierry IV., . . . . .	720
Macbeth, . . . . .	1039	Interregnum, . . . . .	737-741
Malcolm III., . . . . .	1057	Childeric III., . . . . .	742
Donald VII., . . . . .	1093		
Duncan II., . . . . .	1094	<i>Carolingians.</i>	
Donald VII., . . . . .	1094	Pepin, the Short, . . . . .	752
Edgar, . . . . .	1098	Karl the Great, Charlemagne, . . . . .	767
Alexander I., . . . . .	1107	Louis I., le Débonnaire, . . . . .	814
David I., . . . . .	1124	Karl, the Bald, . . . . .	840
Malcolm IV., . . . . .	1153	Louis II., the Stammerer, . . . . .	877
William, the Lion, . . . . .	1165	Louis III. and Carloman II., . . . . .	879
Alexander II., . . . . .	1214	Karl, the Fat . . . . .	884
Alexander III., . . . . .	1249	Eudes, or Hugh, . . . . .	887
Interregnum, . . . . .	1285-1292	Karl, the Simple, . . . . .	898
		Robert, . . . . .	922
<i>Houses of Baliol and Bruce.</i>		Rudolf, or Raoul, . . . . .	923
John Baliol, . . . . .	1292	Louis IV., d'Outre Mèr, . . . . .	936
Interregnum, . . . . .	1296-1306	Lothair, . . . . .	954
Robert I., Bruce, . . . . .	1306	Louis V., . . . . .	986
David II., Bruce, . . . . .	1329		
Edward Baliol, . . . . .	1332	<i>House of Capet.</i>	
David II., . . . . .	1334	Hugh Capet, . . . . .	987
		Robert II., . . . . .	996
<i>House of Stuart.</i>		Henry I., . . . . .	1031
Robert II., Stuart, . . . . .	1371	Philip I., the Fair, . . . . .	1060
Robert III., John Stuart, . . . . .	1390	Louis VI., the Fat, . . . . .	1108
James I., . . . . .	1406	Louis VII., the Young, . . . . .	1137
James II., . . . . .	1437	Philip II., Augustus, . . . . .	1180
James III., . . . . .	1460	Louis VIII., Cœur de Lion, . . . . .	1223
James IV., . . . . .	1488	Louis IX., Saint, . . . . .	1226
James V., . . . . .	1513	Philip III., the Hardy, . . . . .	1270
Mary, . . . . .	1542	Philip IV., the Fair, . . . . .	1285
James VI., (James I. of England), . . . . .	1567-1603	Louis X., the Headstrong, . . . . .	1314
		John I., . . . . .	1314
<i>SOVEREIGNS OF FRANCE.</i>		Philip V., the Long, . . . . .	1316
<i>Merovingians.</i>		Charles IV., the Handsome, . . . . .	1322
Pharamond, . . . . .	420		
Clodion, . . . . .	428	<i>House of Valois.</i>	
Merovæus, . . . . .	447	Philip VI., the Fortunate, . . . . .	1328
Childeric, . . . . .	458	John II., the Good, . . . . .	1350
Clovis I., the Great, . . . . .	481	Charles V., the Wise, . . . . .	1364
Childebert, Clodomir, Thierry and Clotaire, . . . . .	511	Charles VI., the Beloved, . . . . .	1380
Clotaire, . . . . .	558	Charles VII., the Victorious, . . . . .	1422
Charibert, Gontram, Sigebert and Chilperic, . . . . .	561	Louis XI., . . . . .	1461
Childebert II., . . . . .	575	Charles VIII., the Affable, . . . . .	1483
Clotaire IV., . . . . .	613	Louis XII., . . . . .	1498
Dagobert I., . . . . .	628	Francis I., . . . . .	1515
Clovis II. and Sigebert II., . . . . .	638	Henry II., . . . . .	1547
Clotaire III., . . . . .	656	Francis II., . . . . .	1559
Childeric II., . . . . .	670	Charles IX., . . . . .	1560
Thierry III., . . . . .	670	Henry III., . . . . .	1574

*House of Bourbon.*

	A. D.
Henry IV., the Great, . . . . .	1589
Louis XIII., the Just, . . . . .	1610
Louis XIV., the Great, . . . . .	1643
Louis XV., the Well Beloved, . . . . .	1715
Louis XVI., . . . . .	1774
Louis XVII., . . . . .	1793

*First Republic.*

The National Convention, . . . . .	1793
The Directory, . . . . .	1795
The Consulate, . . . . .	1799

*First Empire.*

Napoleon I., Bonaparte, . . . . .	1804
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*House of Bourbon.*

Louis XVIII., . . . . .	1814
Charles X., . . . . .	1824

*House of Orleans.*

Louis Philippe, . . . . .	1830
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*Second Republic.*

Louis Napoleon, President, . . . . .	1848-1852
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*Second Empire.*

Napoleon III., . . . . .	1852
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*Third Republic.*

Thiers, . . . . .	1871
MacMahon, . . . . .	1873
Grévy, . . . . .	1879
Carnot, . . . . .	1887—

GERMAN EMPERORS.

*Carlovingians.*

Karl, the Great, . . . . .	800
Louis I., le Débonnaire, . . . . .	814
Lothair I., . . . . .	840
Louis II., . . . . .	855
Karl II., the Bald, . . . . .	875
Karl III., the Fat, . . . . .	881
Arnulf, . . . . .	887
Louis III., the Blind, . . . . .	899
Louis IV., the Child, . . . . .	899

*Saxon Emperors.*

Conrad I., . . . . .	911
Henry I., the Fowler, . . . . .	918
Otho I., the Great, . . . . .	936
Otho II., the Bloody, . . . . .	973
Otho III., the Red, . . . . .	983
Henry II., the Saint, . . . . .	1002

*House of Franconia.*

Conrad II., the Salique, . . . . .	1024
Henry, III., the Black, . . . . .	1039
Henry IV., . . . . .	1056
Henry V., . . . . .	1106
Lothair II., the Saxon, . . . . .	1126

*House of Hohenstaufen, or Suabia.*

	A. D.
Conrad III., . . . . .	1138
Frederick I., Barbarossa, . . . . .	1152
Henry VI., . . . . .	1190
Philip, . . . . .	1198
Otho IV., the Superb, . . . . .	1208
Frederick II., . . . . .	1215
William, . . . . .	1247
Conrad IV., . . . . .	1250
Conradin, . . . . .	1250
Interregnum, . . . . .	1268 1273

*House of Hapsburg.*

Rudolph, . . . . .	1273
Adolphus, . . . . .	1292
Albert I., . . . . .	1298
Henry VII., of Luxemburg, . . . . .	1308
Louis IV., of Bavaria, . . . . .	1314
Charles IV., of Luxemburg, . . . . .	1347
Wenceslas, of Bohemia, . . . . .	1378
Rupert, . . . . .	1400
Sigismund, . . . . .	1410

*House of Austria.*

Albert II., the Great, . . . . .	1438
Frederick III., the Pacific, . . . . .	1440
Maximilian I., . . . . .	1493
Charles V., . . . . .	1519
Ferdinand I., . . . . .	1556
Maximilian II., . . . . .	1564
Rudolph II., . . . . .	1576
Matthias, . . . . .	1612
Ferdinand II., . . . . .	1619
Ferdinand III., . . . . .	1637
Leopold I., . . . . .	1658
Joseph I., . . . . .	1705
Charles VI., . . . . .	1711
Maria Theresa, . . . . .	1740
Francis I., of Lorraine, . . . . .	1745
Joseph II., . . . . .	1765
Leopold II., . . . . .	1790
Francis II., . . . . .	1792-1806

*Confederation of the Rhine, 1806-1815.*

*Germanic Confederation, 1815-1866.*

*North German Confederation, 1866-1871.*

*House of Hohenzollern.*

William I., . . . . .	1871
Frederick (William) III., . . . . .	1888
William II., . . . . .	1888—

KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick I., . . . . .	1701
Frederick William I., . . . . .	1713
Frederick II., the Great, . . . . .	1740
Frederick William II., . . . . .	1786
Frederick William III., . . . . .	1797
Frederick William IV., . . . . .	1840
William I., . . . . .	1861-1871



## KINGS OF POLAND.

*House of Piast.*

	A. D.
Boleslas I., . . . . .	992
Miecislav II., . . . . .	1025
Casimir I., . . . . .	1041
Boleslas II., the Intrepid, . . . . .	1058
Ladislav I., the Careless, . . . . .	1081
Boleslas III., Wry-mouth, . . . . .	1102
Ladislav II., . . . . .	1138
Boleslas IV., the Curled, . . . . .	1146
Miecislav III., the Old, . . . . .	1173
Casimir II., the Just, . . . . .	1177
Lesko V., the White, . . . . .	1194
Miecislav IV., . . . . .	1200
Ladislav III., . . . . .	1202
Lesko V., . . . . .	1206
Boleslas V., the Chaste, . . . . .	1227
Lesko VI., the Black, . . . . .	1279
Anarchy, . . . . .	1289-1295
Premislav, . . . . .	1295
Ladislav IV., the Short, . . . . .	1296
Wenceslav, . . . . .	1300
Ladislav IV., . . . . .	1304
Casimir III., the Great, . . . . .	1333
Louis of Hungary, . . . . .	1370
Maria, . . . . .	1382

*The Jagellon.*

Ladislav V., . . . . .	1384
Ladislav VI., . . . . .	1434
Casimir IV., . . . . .	1445
John I., Albert, . . . . .	1492
Alexander, . . . . .	1501
Sigismund I., the Great, . . . . .	1506
Sigismund II., Augustus, . . . . .	1548

*Elected Monarchs.*

Henry, de Valois, . . . . .	1573
Stephen, Bathori, . . . . .	1575
Sigismund III., . . . . .	1587
Ladislav VII., Vasa, . . . . .	1632
John II., Casimir V., . . . . .	1643
Michael Wiesnowski, . . . . .	1669
John III., Sobieski, . . . . .	1674
Frederick Augustus I., . . . . .	1697
Stanislav I., Leszczinski, . . . . .	1704
Frederick Augustus I., . . . . .	1709
Frederick Augustus II., . . . . .	1733
Stanislav II., Poniatowski, . . . . .	1764-1795

## KINGS OF ARAGON.

Ramiro I., . . . . .	1035
Sancho Ramirez, . . . . .	1065
Peter I., of Navarre, . . . . .	1094
Alphonzo I., the Warrior, . . . . .	1104
Ramiro, the Monk, . . . . .	1134
Protonilla, . . . . .	1137
Alphonzo II., . . . . .	1163
Peter II., . . . . .	1196

James I., . . . . .	A. D. 1213
Peter III., . . . . .	1276
Alphonso III., the Beneficent, . . . . .	1285
James II., the Just, . . . . .	1291
Alphonso IV., the Meek, . . . . .	1327
Peter IV., the Ceremonious, . . . . .	1336
John I., . . . . .	1387
Martin, . . . . .	1395
Interregnum, . . . . .	1410-1412
Ferdinand I., the Just, . . . . .	1412
Alphonso V., the Wise, . . . . .	1416
John II., . . . . .	1458
Ferdinand II., the Catholic, . . . . .	1479-1512

## KINGS OF CASTILE AND LEON.

Ferdinand I, the Great, . . . . .	1035
Sancho II., the Strong, . . . . .	1065
Alphonso VI., the Valiant, . . . . .	1072
Urraca, and Alphonso VII., . . . . .	1109
Alphonso VII., Raymond, . . . . .	1126
Sancho III., the Beloved, . . . . .	1157
Alphonso VIII., the Noble, . . . . .	1158
Alphonso IX., . . . . .	1188
Henry I., . . . . .	1214
Ferdinand III., the Saint, . . . . .	1217
Alphonso X., the Wise, . . . . .	1252
Sancho IV., the Brave, . . . . .	1284
Ferdinand IV., . . . . .	1295
Alphonso XI., . . . . .	1312
Peter, the Cruel, . . . . .	1350
Henry II., the Gracious, . . . . .	1369
John I., . . . . .	1379
Henry III., the Sickly, . . . . .	1390
John II., . . . . .	1406
Henry IV., the Impotent, . . . . .	1454
Isabella, . . . . .	1474
Joanna and Philip I., of Austria, . . . . .	1504
Ferdinand V., . . . . .	1506-1512

## KINGS OF SPAIN.

*House of Trastamora.*

Ferdinand V., . . . . .	1512
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*House of Hapsburg.*

Charles I., . . . . .	1516
Philip II., . . . . .	1556
Philip III., . . . . .	1598
Philip IV., . . . . .	1621
Charles II., . . . . .	1665

*House of Bourbon.*

Philip V., . . . . .	1700
Ferdinand VI., the Wise, . . . . .	1746
Charles III., . . . . .	1759
Charles IV., . . . . .	1788

*House of Bonaparte.*

Joseph Bonaparte, . . . . .	1808
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*House of Bourbon.*

	A. D.
Frederick VII., . . . . .	1813
Isabella II., . . . . .	1833

*House of Savoy.*

Amadeo I., . . . . .	1870
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*Republic.*

1873-1874

*House of Bourbon.*

Alphonso XII., . . . . .	1874
Alphonso XIII., . . . . .	1886—

## KINGS OF PORTUGAL.

*House of Burgundy.*

Alphonso I., . . . . .	1139
Sancho I., . . . . .	1185
Alphonso II., the Fat, . . . . .	1212
Sancho II., the Idle, . . . . .	1223
Alphonso III., . . . . .	1248
Dennis, . . . . .	1279
Alphonso IV., . . . . .	1325
Pedro, the Severe, . . . . .	1357
Ferdinand I., . . . . .	1367
John I., the Great, . . . . .	1385
Edward, . . . . .	1433
Alphonso V., the African, . . . . .	1438
John II., the Perfect, . . . . .	1481
Emanuel, the Fortunate, . . . . .	1495
John III., . . . . .	1521
Sebastian, . . . . .	1557
Henry, . . . . .	1578
Anthony, . . . . .	1580

*United with Spain.*

1580-1640

*House of Braganza.*

John IV., . . . . .	1640
Alphonso VI., . . . . .	1656
Peter II., . . . . .	1683
John V., . . . . .	1706
Joseph Emanuel, . . . . .	1750
Peter III., and Maria I., . . . . .	1777
Maria I., . . . . .	1786
John VI., . . . . .	1816
Peter IV., Dom Pedro, . . . . .	1826
Maria II., da Gloria, . . . . .	1826
Dom Miguel, . . . . .	1828
Maria II., . . . . .	1833
Peter V., Dom Pedro, . . . . .	1853
Louis I., . . . . .	1861
Dom Carlos, . . . . .	1889—

## KINGS OF DENMARK.

*House of SkioId.*

Sigurd Snogoe . . . . .	794
Hardicanute . . . . .	803

A. D.

Eric I., . . . . .	850
Eric II., . . . . .	854
Gormo, the Old, . . . . .	883
Harold, Bluetooth, . . . . .	941
Sweyn, the Forked Beard . . . . .	991
Canute II., the Great, . . . . .	1014
Canute III., . . . . .	1035
Magnus, of Norway, . . . . .	1042
Sweyn II., . . . . .	1047
Interregnum, . . . . .	1073-1076
Harold, the Simple, . . . . .	1076
Canute IV., . . . . .	1080
Olaf IV., the Hungry, . . . . .	1086
Eric I., the Good, . . . . .	1095
Interregnum, . . . . .	1103-1105
Nicholas I., . . . . .	1105
Eric II., Harefoot, . . . . .	1135
Eric III., the Lamb, . . . . .	1137
Sweyn III., . . . . .	1147
Canute V., . . . . .	1147
Waldemar, the Great, . . . . .	1157
Canute VI., the Pious, . . . . .	1182
Waldemar II., the Victorious, . . . . .	1202
Eric IV., . . . . .	1241
Abel, . . . . .	1250
Christopher I., . . . . .	1252
Eric V., . . . . .	1259
Eric VI., . . . . .	1286
Christopher II., . . . . .	1320
Interregnum, . . . . .	1334-1340
Waldemar III., . . . . .	1340
Olaf V., . . . . .	1376
Margaret, . . . . .	1387
Margaret and Eric VII., . . . . .	1397
Eric VII., . . . . .	1412
Interregnum . . . . .	1438-1440
Christopher III., . . . . .	1440

*House of Oldenburg.*

Christian I., . . . . .	1448
John, . . . . .	1481
Christian II., the Cruel, . . . . .	1513
Frederick I., . . . . .	1523
Christian III., . . . . .	1533
Frederick II., . . . . .	1559
Christian IV., . . . . .	1588
Frederick III., . . . . .	1648
Christian V., . . . . .	1670
Frederick IV., . . . . .	1699
Christian VI., . . . . .	1730
Frederick V., . . . . .	1746
Christian VII., . . . . .	1766
Frederick VI., . . . . .	1808
Christian VIII., . . . . .	1839
Frederick VII., . . . . .	1848
Christian IX., . . . . .	1863—

KINGS OF SWEDEN.		DUKES OF BURGUNDY.	
	A. D.		A. D.
Olaf Schotkonung, . . . . .	1001	Philip, the Bold, . . . . .	1363
Edmund Colbrenner, . . . . .	1026	John, the Fearless, . . . . .	1404
Edmund Slemme, . . . . .	1051	Philip, the Good, . . . . .	1419
Stenkil, . . . . .	1056	Charles, the Bold, . . . . .	1467-1477
Halstan, . . . . .	1066		
Ingo I., the Good, . . . . .	1090	SULTANS OF TURKEY.	
Philip, . . . . .	1112	Osman I, . . . . .	1299
Ingo II., . . . . .	1118	Orchan, . . . . .	1326
Swerker I., . . . . .	1129	Amurath I., . . . . .	1360
Saint Eric IX., . . . . .	1155	Bajazet I., Ilderim, . . . . .	1389
Charles VII., . . . . .	1161	Solomon, . . . . .	1403
Canute, . . . . .	1167	Musa-Chelebi, . . . . .	1410
Swerker II., . . . . .	1199	Mahomet I., . . . . .	1413
Eric X., . . . . .	1210	Amurath II., . . . . .	1421
John I., . . . . .	1216	Mahomet II., . . . . .	1451
Eric XI., . . . . .	1222	Bajazet II., . . . . .	1481
Waldemar I., . . . . .	1250	Selim I., . . . . .	1512
Magnus I., Ladulas, . . . . .	1275	Solomon II., the Magnificent, . . . . .	1520
Birger II., . . . . .	1290	Selim II., . . . . .	1566
Magnus II., Smæk, . . . . .	1319	Amurath III., . . . . .	1574
Eric XII., . . . . .	1350	Mahomet III., . . . . .	1595
Magnus II., . . . . .	1359	Achmet I., . . . . .	1603
Albert of Mecklenburg, . . . . .	1363 1397	Mustapha I., . . . . .	1617
<i>United with Denmark, 1397-1523.</i>		Osman II., . . . . .	1618
<i>House of Vasa.</i>		Mustapha I., . . . . .	1622
Gustavus I., Vasa, . . . . .	1523	Amurath IV., . . . . .	1623
Eric XIV., . . . . .	1560	Ibrahim, . . . . .	1640
John III., . . . . .	1569	Mahomet IV., . . . . .	1649
Sigismund III., . . . . .	1592	Solomon III., . . . . .	1687
Charles IX., . . . . .	1604	Achmet II., . . . . .	1691
Gustavus II., Adolphus, the Great, . . . . .	1611	Mustapha II., . . . . .	1695
Christina, . . . . .	1633	Achmet III., . . . . .	1703
Charles X., Gustavus, . . . . .	1654	Mohammed V., Mahmud, . . . . .	1730
Charles XI., . . . . .	1660	Osman III., . . . . .	1754
Charles XII., . . . . .	1697	Mustapha III., . . . . .	1757
Ulrica Eleonora, . . . . .	1718	Achmet IV., Abdul-Ahmed, . . . . .	1774
Frederick I., . . . . .	1741	Selim III., . . . . .	1789
Adolphus Frederick, . . . . .	1751	Mustapha IV., . . . . .	1807
Gustavus III., Adolphus, . . . . .	1771	Mahmud II., Mahomet VI., . . . . .	1808
Gustavus IV., Adolphus, . . . . .	1792	Abdul Medjid, . . . . .	1839
Charles XIII., . . . . .	1809	Abdul Aziz, . . . . .	1851
<i>House of Bernadotte.</i>		Amurath V., . . . . .	1867
Charles XIV., John, . . . . .	1818	Abdul Hamid, . . . . .	1876—
Oscar I., . . . . .	1844		
Charles XV., . . . . .	1859	CZARS OF RUSSIA.	
Oscar II., . . . . .	1872—	<i>House of Ruric.</i>	
KINGS OF NAPLES AND SICILY.		Ivan, the Great, Basilovitz, . . . . .	1462
<i>Normans.</i>		Vasali, Basil V., . . . . .	1505
Roger I., . . . . .	1131	Ivan IV., the Terrible, . . . . .	1533
William I., the Bad, . . . . .	1154	Feodor I., . . . . .	1584
William II., the Good, . . . . .	1166	Boris-Godonoff, . . . . .	1598
Tancred, . . . . .	1189	Feodor II., . . . . .	1605
William III., . . . . .	1194	Demetrius, the Impostor, . . . . .	1606
Constance, . . . . .	1194-1197	Zouinski, Vasali-Chouiski, . . . . .	1606
		Ladislaus, of Poland, . . . . .	1610



*House of Romanoff.*

	A. D.
Michael, Feodorovitz, . . . . .	1613
Alexis, . . . . .	1645
Feodor II., . . . .	1676
Ivan V., and Peter I., . . . .	1682
Peter I., the Great, . . . . .	1689
Catharine I., . . . . .	1725
Peter II., . . . . .	1727
Anne, . . . . .	1730
Ivan VI., . . . . .	1740
Elizabeth, . . . . .	1741
Peter III., . . . . .	1762
Catharine II., . . . . .	1762
Paul, . . . . .	1796
Alexander I., . . . . .	1801
Nicholas I., . . . . .	1825
Alexander II., . . . . .	1855
Alexander III., . . . . .	1881—

## EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

*House of Hapsburg.*

Francis I., . . . . .	1804
Ferdinand, . . . . .	1835
Francis Joseph, . . . . .	1848—

## KINGS OF HOLLAND.

*House of Orange.*

William Frederick, . . . . .	1813
William II., . . . . .	1840
William III., . . . . .	1849
Wilhelmina, . . . . .	1890—

## KINGS OF BELGIUM.

*House of Saxe-Coburg.*

Leopold I., . . . . .	1831
Leopold II., . . . . .	1865—

## KINGS OF GREECE.

*House of Bavaria.*

Otho I., . . . . .	1832
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*House of Denmark.*

George I., . . . . .	1863—
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## KINGS OF ITALY.

*House of Savoy.*

Victor Emmanuel, . . . . .	1861
Humbert, . . . . .	1878—

## PRINCES OF ROUMANIA.

Alexander Couza, . . . . .	1859
Charles I., . . . . .	1866—

## PRINCES OF BULGARIA.

Alexander I., . . . . .	1879
Ferdinand, . . . . .	1887—

## PRINCES OF SERVIA.

Milosch I., Obrenovitch, . . . . .	1829
Michael II., . . . . .	1839
Michael III., . . . . .	1840

Alexander, . . . . .	1842
Milosch I., . . . . .	1858
Michael III., . . . . .	1860
Milan IV., . . . . .	1868
Alexander, . . . . .	1889—

## PRINCES OF MONTENEGRO.

Daniel, . . . . .	1851
Nicholas, . . . . .	1860—

## SHAHS OF PERSIA.

*Suffean Dynasty.*

Ismail, . . . . .	1502
Tamasp, . . . . .	1523
Ismail II., Meerza, . . . . .	1576
Mahommed, Meerza, . . . . .	1577
Abbas I., the Great, . . . . .	1585
Sopbi, . . . . .	1628
Abbas II., . . . . .	1641
Sopbi II., . . . . .	1666
Hussein, . . . . .	1694
Mahmoud, . . . . .	1722
Ashraff, the Usurper, . . . . .	1725
Tamasp II., . . . . .	1730
Abbas III., . . . . .	1732
Nadir, . . . . .	1736
Rokh, . . . . .	1749
Interregnum, . . . . .	1751-1759
Kureem Khan, . . . . .	1759
Anarchy, . . . . .	17.9-1795

*Turkoman Dynasty.*

Aga-Mahommed Khan, . . . . .	1795
Futteh Ali, . . . . .	1798
Mahommed, . . . . .	1834
Nasr-ul-Deen, . . . . .	1848—

## MOGUL EMPERORS OF INDIA.

Baber, . . . . .	1526
Humayun, . . . . .	1531
Akbar, . . . . .	1556
Jehanghir, . . . . .	1605
Shah Jehan, . . . . .	1627
Aurangzebe, . . . . .	1658
Babadoor Shah, . . . . .	1707
Jehander Shah, . . . . .	1713
Mahomed Shah, . . . . .	1719-1748

## EMPERORS OF CHINA.

Chwang-Lei, . . . . .	1627
Shun-che, . . . . .	1643
Kang-hi, . . . . .	1662
Yang-ching, . . . . .	1723
Keen-lung, . . . . .	1736
Kea-king, . . . . .	1795
Taou-Kwang, . . . . .	1820
Hieng-fung, . . . . .	1850
Ki-tsiang, Toung-chi, . . . . .	1861
Kwang Su, . . . . .	1875—

## MIKADOS OF JAPAN.

	A. D.
Komei Tenno, . . . . .	
Mutsu Hito . . . . .	1867—

## KHEDIVES OF EGYPT.

Mehemet Ali Pasha, . . . . .	1806
Ibrahim, . . . . .	1848
Abbas, . . . . .	1848
Said, . . . . .	1854
Ismail, . . . . .	1863
Mechmet Tewfik, . . . . .	1879
Abbas Hilmi, . . . . .	1892—

## BRITISH GOVERNORS OF INDIA.

Warren Hastings, . . . . .	1772
Sir John Macpherson, . . . . .	1785
Lord Cornwallis, . . . . .	1786
Sir John Shore, . . . . .	1793
Marquis Wellesley, . . . . .	1798
Lord Cornwallis, . . . . .	1805
Sir George Hilario Barlow . . . . .	1805
Lord Minto, . . . . .	1807
Marquis of Hastings, . . . . .	1813
Lord Amherst, . . . . .	1823
Lord William Bentinck . . . . .	1828
Lord Metcalfe, . . . . .	1835
Lord Auckland, . . . . .	1836
Lord Ellenborough, . . . . .	1842
Sir Henry Hardinge, . . . . .	1844
Lord Dalhousie, . . . . .	1848
Lord Canning, . . . . .	1855
Lord Elgin, . . . . .	1861
Lord Lawrence, . . . . .	1863
Lord Mayo, . . . . .	1868
Lord Northbrook, . . . . .	1872
Lord Lytton, . . . . .	1876
Marquis of Ripon, . . . . .	1880
Earl of Dufferin, . . . . .	1884
Marquis of Lansdowne, . . . . .	1888—

## PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

George Washington, . . . . .	1789
John Adams, . . . . .	1797
Thomas Jefferson, . . . . .	1801
James Madison, . . . . .	1809
James Monroe, . . . . .	1817
John Quincy Adams, . . . . .	1825
Andrew Jackson, . . . . .	1829
Martin Van Buren, . . . . .	1837
William Henry Harrison, . . . . .	1841
John Tyler, . . . . .	1841
James Knox Polk, . . . . .	1845
Zachary Taylor, . . . . .	1849
Millard Fillmore, . . . . .	1850
Franklin Pierce, . . . . .	1853
James Buchanan, . . . . .	1857
Abraham Lincoln, . . . . .	1861
Andrew Johnson, . . . . .	1865
Ulysses S. Grant, . . . . .	1869

	A. D.
Rutherford B. Hayes, . . . . .	1877
James A. Garfield, . . . . .	1881
Chester A. Arthur, . . . . .	1881
Grover Cleveland, . . . . .	1885
Benjamin Harrison, . . . . .	1889
Grover Cleveland, . . . . .	1893—

## GOVERNORS GENERAL OF CANADA.

Earl of Durham, . . . . .	1838
Sir John Colborne, . . . . .	1838
Lord Sydenham, . . . . .	1839
Sir Charles Bagot, . . . . .	1841
Lord Metcalfe, . . . . .	1843
Earl Cathcart, . . . . .	1846
Earl of Elgin, . . . . .	1846
Lord Mouck, . . . . .	1861
Lord Lisgar, . . . . .	1864
Earl of Dufferin, . . . . .	1872
Marquis of Lorne, . . . . .	1878
Marquis of Lansdowne, . . . . .	1884
Lord Stanley of Preston, . . . . .	1888—

## RULERS OF MEXICO.

<i>Emperor.</i>	
Augustin Iturbide, . . . . .	1822-1823
<i>Presidents.</i>	
Guadalupe Victoria, . . . . .	1825
Guerrero, . . . . .	1829
Bustamante, . . . . .	1830
Pedraza, . . . . .	1832
Santa Anna, . . . . .	1833
Bustamante, . . . . .	1837
Santa Anna, . . . . .	1841
Herrera, . . . . .	1845
Paredes, . . . . .	1846
Santa Anna, . . . . .	1846
Herrera, . . . . .	1848
Arista, . . . . .	1851
Santa Anna, . . . . .	1853
Alvarez, . . . . .	1855
Comonfort, . . . . .	1856
Zuloaga, . . . . .	1858
Benito Juarez, . . . . .	1861

<i>Emperor.</i>	
Maximilian, of Austria, . . . . .	1864-1867
<i>Presidents.</i>	
Benito Juarez, . . . . .	1864
Lerdo de Tejado, . . . . .	1872
Porfirio Diaz, . . . . .	1877
Gonzalez, . . . . .	1880
Porfirio Diaz, . . . . .	1884—

## RULERS OF BRAZIL.

<i>House of Braganza.</i>	
Dom Pedro I., . . . . .	1822
Dom Pedro II., . . . . .	1831-1889
<i>Presidents.</i>	
Deodora da Fonseca, . . . . .	1889
Floriano Peixoto, . . . . .	1891—

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Äe. çäre, äm, ärm. final: ève, obëy, ènd, hër. recent: ice, ill, pique; öld, örb, ödd, möve; üse, ürn, üp, rüde: föcä, fööt; by; çell; n=ng; Italic letters silent or obscure.

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Äle, cáre, ám, árm, final; éve, obéy, énd, hér, recent; ice, ill, piqúe; öld, örb, ódd, móve;



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Ale, cāre, ām, ārm, ānāl; ēve, obēy, ēnd, hēr, recent; ice, ill, pique; ōld, ōrb, ōdd, mōve; ūse, ūrn, ūp, rūde; fōōd, fōōt;  
 by; çell; x=ng; italic letters silent or obscure.



















